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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

W. W. HUNTER, C.S.I., C.I.E., LL.D.,

DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF STATISTICS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VOLUME III.

BIRBHUM TO COCANÁDA.

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Corrigendum to Article BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

P. 67, line 7—*For* ‘directly managed by Government officers,’
read ‘generally managed by a Court of Regency, or by a joint
Administration composed of a Government officer and a repre-
sentative of the Native State.’

The author regrets that owing to the death of a gentleman in whose hands he had placed the manuscript materials for Western India, the revision of several articles, particularly those for Ahmadábád, and Bombay City and Presidency, has not been so complete as he would have desired.

W. W. H.

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME III.

Bírbhúm (*Beerbhoom*).—District of the Bardwán Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between $23^{\circ} 34'$ and $24^{\circ} 35'$ N. lat., and between $87^{\circ} 7' 30''$ and $88^{\circ} 4' 15''$ E. long.; area, 1756 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 794,428 souls. It is bounded on the north-west by the Santál Parganás; on the east by the Districts of Murshidábád and Bardwán; and on the south by Bardwán District, the Ajái river forming the boundary line for the whole distance. The District takes its name, according to the Sanskrit etymologists, from *Vir-Bhúmi*, 'hero-land;' but the Santáli word *Vir*, meaning jungle, has also been suggested as its derivation. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at SURÍ town.

Physical Aspects.—The eastern portion of the District is an alluvial plain, presenting the ordinary features of the Bengal lowlands; towards the west the ground rises, the surface consisting of undulating beds of laterite, which rest on a basis of rock. Granitic veins traverse the District in parts, occasionally appearing on the surface. About 15 miles south-west of the Civil Station of Surí, there is a curious mass of granite, rising to a height of 30 or 40 feet, split up into numerous irregular fragments by the action of sun and rain. No navigable river flows through Bírbhúm; the largest stream is the Ajai, which forms the southern boundary line of the District. The other streams deserving notice are the Mor or Maureksha, the Bakeswar, the Hinglá, and the Dẁarká. The Mor, which flows in a wide sandy bed, is navigable during the rains, but by descending boats only. Small canoes are built on the banks, and floated down during the freshets; they carry charcoal to Katwá, where they are sold with their cargoes, as they cannot be taken up stream again. There are no lakes or canals in the District.

On the bank of the Bakeswar *nálá*, about a mile south of the village of Tántipará, occurs a group of sulphur springs, named the Bhúm Bakeswar, and numerous hot jets also burst forth in the bed of the stream itself. This spot is a noted place of pilgrimage, and the right bank of the stream is covered with temples erected by pilgrims in honour of Mahádeo or Siva. Another warm spring breaks out near the village of Sakarakunda. Iron and limestone are the only minerals of any importance found in the District. Iron-ores have long been worked under the rough native mode of smelting; and within recent years an attempt has been made to ascertain whether more extended operations might not profitably be carried out according to the European process of manufacture. The larger kinds of wild beasts, which formerly infested Bírbbhúm, have now almost disappeared, with the exception of an occasional tiger or bear which wanders into the cultivated tracts from the jungles of the Santál Parganá on the west. Small game, such as hares, partridges, wild duck, quail, and snipe, are common.

History.—The area of the District is at present much more limited than in former times. When it first came under British administration, the Bírbbhúm *samindári* occupied an area of 3858 square miles; and the District included in addition the *samindári* of Bishnupur, which was in the beginning of the present century separated and formed into the independent Collectorate of Bánkura. Some years later, reductions were made in the remaining portion of Bírbbhúm District, by the separation from it of considerable tracts on the west, which now form part of the Santál Parganá. Finally, within the last few years, in order to make the different jurisdictions conterminous, further transfers of small tracts have been made to and from the District, the present (1883) area of the District being 1756 square miles.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the *samindári* of Bírbbhúm was conferred by Jafar Khán on one Asad-ullá Pathán, whose family had settled in the country a century earlier, after the fall of the Pathan dynasty of Bengal. The estate remained in the family until the British obtained, in 1765, the financial administration of Bengal. It was not till 1787, however, that the Company assumed the direct government of Bírbbhúm. Before that year, the local authority was suffered to remain in the hands of the Rájá. Meanwhile, bands of marauders from the western highlands, after making frequent predatory incursions, had established themselves in the District. The Rájá could do nothing against these invaders, who formed large permanent camps in strong positions, intercepted the revenues on the way to the treasury, brought the commercial operations of the Company to a stand-still, and caused many of the factories to be abandoned. It became absolutely necessary for the English Government to interfere; and the first step in that direction was taken in 1787, when the two border principalities of

Birbhūm and Bānkurā were united into one District, a considerable armed force being maintained to repress the bands of plunderers on the western frontier. On one occasion, in 1788, the Collector had to call out the troops against a band of marauders five hundred strong, who had made a descent on a market town within two hours' ride of the English station, and murdered or frightened away the inhabitants of between thirty and forty villages.

In the beginning of the following year (1789), the inroads assumed even more serious proportions, the plunderers going about sacking villages 'in parties of three or four hundred men, well found in arms.' The population was panic-stricken, the large villages and trading depôts were abandoned, and the Collector was compelled hastily to recall the outposts stationed at the frontier passes, to levy a militia supplementing the regular troops, and obtain reinforcements of soldiery from the neighbouring Districts. The marauders could not hold out against the forces thus brought against them, and were driven back into the mountains. Order was soon established, and the country recovered with amazing rapidity from the disastrous effects of the ravages to which it had been exposed. The neglected fields were cultivated once more; the inhabitants returned to the deserted villages; and the people, reassured by the success of the measures taken by the Government, eagerly joined them against the marauders. In the beginning of the present century, the District was reported to be remarkably free from robbery; and so completely have the troublous times through which it passed faded from local memory, that, a few years ago, the District was described in a public document as still enjoying 'its old immunity from crime.' The District is now as peaceful as any in Bengal, and the administrative statistics, which will be found below, furnish an eloquent commentary on the results of British rule in Birbhūm.

Population.—The population of the District in 1872, as returned by the Census of that year, but allowing for all transfers to and from the District since then, was 853,785. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 794,428, being a decrease of 59,357, or 6·95 per cent. on the area of the District as at present constituted, namely, 1756 square miles. This decrease is due to the ravages of the 'Bardwān fever,' which has been devastating the Division since 1861. Average density of population (1881) 452·40 per square mile; number of towns or villages, 3273; number of occupied houses, 181,068; unoccupied houses, 18,932; number of villages per square mile, 1·86; number of houses per square mile, 113·90; number of persons per occupied house, 4·39. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 381,563, and the females 412,865; proportion of males, 48·0 per cent. This disproportion of the sexes, which is noticeable

in every District of the Bardwán Division, is owing to its proximity to Calcutta; many men go there in search of employment, leaving their wives and families behind. Classified according to religion, the Hindus predominate largely, numbering 617,310, or 77·70 per cent. of the population; the Muhammadans were returned at 162,621, or 20·47 per cent.; Christians, 48; and 'others,' consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes who still retain their primitive forms of faith, 14,449, or 1·82 per cent. Of the highest and respectable castes of Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 39,724; Rájputs, 8344; Káyasths, 8902; and Baniyás, 18,103. Of the Súdra castes, the most important are the Sadgops, the chief cultivating class, numbering 79,621. The other most numerous castes are the following:—Kálu, 20,783; Bagdí, 40,032; Chamár, 30,975; Dom, 35,316; Baurí, 27,258; and Harí, 23,286, who form the lowest classes of the Hindu social organization. The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 157,316; Shiás, 3565; and unspecified, 1740. Of the 48 Christians, 29 were native converts. The population of Bírbbhúm is entirely rural, the only towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants being SURI, the administrative headquarters, with a population of 7848; and MARGRAM, with 6008. The 3273 villages or towns in 1881 were classified as follows:—Containing less than two hundred inhabitants, 1979; from two to five hundred, 945; from five hundred to a thousand, 264; from one to two thousand, 74; from two to three thousand, 5; from three to five thousand, 4; and from five to ten thousand, 2. The Census Report of 1881 classified the male population as regards occupation under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officers, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 11,089; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 8351; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7046; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,308; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 29,844; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 22,583 general labourers, and 156,155 male children, and unspecified), 178,925.

Material Condition of the People.—The general style of living in Bírbbhúm District is poor. The ordinary dress of the men consists of a waistcloth (*dhutí*), the quality of which differs according to the circumstances of the wearer. The houses are usually mud-walled, but one or two substantial brick houses are found in almost every village. Rice, pulse (*dal*), vegetables, and fish form the ordinary food of the people. The estimated cost of living for an average-sized household of a well-to-do shopkeeper is about £1, 10s. per month, and for that of an ordinary cultivator, from 8s. to 10s. a month. A peasant's holding exceeding 17 acres in extent would be considered a large-sized farm; less than 5 acres is looked upon as a very small holding. The usual

quantity of ground cultivated by a single pair of oxen is about 5 acres ; but a peasant holding a small farm of this size would not be so well off as an ordinary retail shopkeeper, nor would he be able to live so comfortably as a man with a pay of 16s. a month. As a class, the peasantry are said not to be generally in debt.

The most interesting place in the District is Rájnagar or Nagar, the ancient Hindu capital of Bír bhúm. The town has now fallen into decay, and the old palace is fast crumbling to ruins, but considerable portions of the famous wall or entrenchment built to protect the city from the Mār áthás still remain. This wall was from 12 to 18 feet high ; it was surrounded by a ditch, and extended in an irregular and broken line round Nagar for a distance of more than 30 miles, its average distance from the town being about 4 miles. Many parts of it have now been washed level with the ground by the annual rains. Among other places of interest in Bír bhúm are—GANUTIA on the north bank of the Mor, the centre of the important silk industry of the District ; ILAM-BAZAR and DUBRAJPUR, considerable trading villages ; SURUL, now a village of no importance, but once a large and flourishing town where the greater part of the Company's District trade was centred ; KENDULI, the birthplace of the poet Jayadeva, in whose house 50,000 persons assemble at the annual fair in February ; and Tántipará, near which are the hot springs already mentioned. Bolpur, Ahmadpur, Synthia, Mallarpur, Rámpurhát, Nalhátí, Murará, and Rájgáon are rapidly rising in importance as stations on the East Indian Railway, and attracting much of the trade which formerly went by water. Nawáda is a station of the State Railway from Nalhátí to Azimganj in Murshidábád, which intersects the north of the District from east to west.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bír bhúm, as throughout the rest of Bengal, is rice. During the last quarter of a century the area under this staple has greatly extended, by the reclamation of large tracts of jungle land. It has been roughly estimated that at present fifteen-sixteenths of the tilled land in the District is under this crop. The *áus* or autumn crop is reaped in August and September, the ordinary *áman* or winter crop in November and December ; an earlier variety of *áman* in the beginning of November. Speaking roughly, ordinary rice land, which pays a rental of 9s. an acre, yields from 13 to 17½ cwts. of paddy or husked rice per acre, valued at £1, 10s. to £2, 2s. 8d. ; land paying 18s. an acre, gives an out-turn in paddy and wheat, valued at £3, 16s. to £4, 10s. an acre. Among the other crops cultivated in Bír bhúm, are sugar-cane, mulberry, *pán*, gram, peas, and oil-seeds. Manure is in general use throughout the District ; the quantity of cow-dung required for rice land being about 45 cwts. per acre, valued at 6s. ; while sugar-cane land requires five times that

quantity. Irrigation is effected from tanks, which are very numerous in the District. A large proportion of the cultivators hold their lands with rights of occupancy, and, as a rule, they are not in debt. There is no class of small proprietors in the District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a superior landlord above, or a sub-tenant or labourer of any kind under them. The prices of food-grain have greatly increased of late years. In 1788, ordinary rice was selling at 2s. 10d. a cwt.; in 1872, the price was 3s. 5½d. per cwt. It is noticeable, however, that the price of rice of the finest quality, of which there is little consumption, has not altered, being both in 1788 and 1872, 4s. 3d. per cwt. The current rate of wages for coolies or ordinary day-labourers is 8s. a month; for carpenters, 16s.; for bricklayers, 16s. to £1; and for blacksmiths, 16s. to £1, 4s. a month.

Natural Calamities.—The District is not liable to droughts, floods, or other natural calamities, although it has occasionally suffered from scanty rainfall. During the famine of 1866, the highest price of common rice in Birbhúum was 15s. 8d. per cwt., and of paddy, 6s. 10d. per cwt. The means of communication and transit throughout the District are amply sufficient to allow of easy importation in case of scarcity, and to prevent the danger of any tract being isolated. The roads are good and sufficiently numerous, being 594 miles in length in 1881; the East Indian Railway runs through the District from north to south for a distance of 68 miles, and the Nalhátí and Azímganj State Railway, east and west for 11 miles.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief export of the District is rice, which is despatched by railway both up and down the line. The other exports, such as indigo, lac, raw silk, and oil-seeds, find their way mostly to the Calcutta market. The principal imports are salt, cotton, cotton cloth, pulses, tobacco, wheat, and metal ware. The principal trading villages and seats of commerce are Dubrájpur, Ilambázár, Bolpur, Synthia, Purandarpur, Krinnáhár, and Muhammad Bázár Surí. The head-quarters town of the District is unimportant from a commercial point of view. The crops of the District suffice to meet all the local wants; and in the case of rice and oil-seeds, large exports are made to other parts of the country. The exports far exceed the imports in value, and a considerable accumulation of money is said to be going on.

Manufactures: Silk.—The principal manufacture of Birbhúum is silk, which is produced in the eastern part of the District; the village of Ganutiá, on the north bank of the Mor, being the head-quarters of the industry. Here is the factory which, established nearly a century ago by Mr. Frushard, under a contract for the supply of silk to the East India Company, is now owned by an English firm in Calcutta,

and gives employment to a large number of people. The story of the annoyances to which this pioneer of silk cultivation was exposed at the hands of the Company's officers, and the manner in which he was defrauded by the Rájá, will be found at length in my *Annals of Rural Bengal*. It can only be briefly stated here that, being charged for the land he bought more than four times its market value, he soon fell into arrears with the Rájá, who made his non-payment an excuse for being himself behind with his land-tax. The Collector could not distrain the factory lands, as such a step would have interfered with the regular supply of the silk investment, and Mr. Frushard secured himself from arrest by living beyond his jurisdiction. The case was at length brought before the Court of Directors; and eventually, Lord Cornwallis, in 1791, ordered that all his past arrears should be forgiven, that his rent should for the future be reduced by nearly one-half, and that the Collector should deduct whatever this sum amounted to from the land-tax payable by the Rájá. Since that time things have gone smoothly, and Mr. Frushard's factory, several times renewed, is now one of the most important buildings in the District. The annual outlay averages £72,000, and the value of the general silk manufactures exceeds £160,000. The silk is usually sold in a raw state, and finds its way to the Calcutta and European markets. The factory at Ganutiá is surrounded by numbers of smaller filatures, the silk reeled in these being either consumed in the local manufacture of piece-goods, or sent to Murshidábád, and the silk-consuming towns of the North-West Provinces and the Punjab.

Four varieties of domesticated or regularly bred silkworms are known in Bírghúm, the best silk being obtained from the *bara palu*, an annual worm. The breeding of the worm is conducted in the following manner. The cocoons are formed in March, the earliest formed being reserved for breeding purposes. The moths begin to emerge on the eighth day after the formation of the cocoon, and continue to emerge till the eleventh day. As the moths make their way out of the cocoons, they are put into other baskets, and the males and females for the most part pair spontaneously and at once. About the middle of the day, the males and females are separated, the males being thrown away, and the females placed on a cloth in a large basket. An hour afterwards, they begin to lay eggs, and continue laying during the night and till the afternoon of the following day. The eggs are then wrapped in three or four folds of cloth and put in an earthen pot, which is covered over with a plastering of earth and cow-dung. In the following January or February the pots are opened, and the eggs begin to hatch, those hatched each day being kept separate. The hatching extends over a period varying from 15 to 25 days according to the temperature. The worms are fed as soon as hatched,—during

the first stage on the tenderest leaves chopped fine, then on whole leaves, and in the last stage the twigs are thrown in whole. Food is given three times a day. The worms are kept in baskets which are placed in a wooden stand, one above the other; as the worms grow, they are placed in larger baskets with fewer worms to each. The full-grown larva is about an inch long and three-quarters of an inch in girth, generally of a white colour with the usual black markings, but the white is tinged with varying shades of yellow and red in different worms. From about twelve to eight days after the last moult, according to the temperature, the worms begin to form their cocoons. They are then placed in a tray which is partitioned off into spinning holes by slips of bamboo, and placed with its back to the sun, the warmth promoting the formation of the cocoon. After formation, the chrysalides which are not wanted for propagation are killed by exposure to the sun, and the cocoons are then ready for the market. Of this kind of silkworm, twelve *kaháns* ($1280 \times 12 = 15,360$) of cocoons will yield one local *ser* or $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupois of spun silk. Another variety of silkworm, the *nistri* worm, is smaller than the above, and five breedings or crops (*bands*) are obtained in the course of the year, of which those obtained in January and July are the best. Two crops out of the five seem to be altogether neglected, and are called *chhorá* or refuse bands in consequence. The cocoon of the *nistri* is of a golden colour, but the yield is less than that of the *bara palu*—sixteen *kaháns* ($1280 \times 16 = 20,480$) of cocoons only produce one local *ser* or $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of silk. The eggs hatch in nine or ten days. In the cold weather, the cycle of the worm is about sixty days, reduced in the hot weather to forty. The *desi* or *chhotá palu* also yields some five or six crops during the year. In most respects it is very like the *nistri*, and its yield of silk is about the same.

No estimate exists showing the total out-turn of cocoons, but it is considerably less now than formerly, owing partly to the depressed state of the silk trade, and partly to the prevalence of disease among the worms. The insect suffers from three maladies in Bírbehúm District, known as (1) *chit rog*, (2) *narmja rog*, and (3) *kátase rog*. The first-named disease seizes the worm in its final stage. Those attacked turn quite hard and die; and it is said that even the crows, who greedily devour the worms whenever they get a chance, will not eat those which have died of this disorder. The second attacks the worm when about to spin. Little white spots or pustules break out on the body, and the worm becomes torpid, and in two or three days melts away in corruption. The third disease may come at any stage of growth. The worms seized turn a greyish colour, water runs from the mouth, and they ultimately rot away. All three diseases are believed to be eminently contagious. The description of the disease does not

seem to correspond with that of either peprine or gattine, the maladies most dreaded in Europe. No remedies are adopted, and it is said that none have ever been tried.

From the silkworm traders the cocoons pass to the filatures. Sometimes a cultivator who grows the mulberry keeps worms as well, and also reels off the cocoons himself; but more generally the three operations of growing the mulberry, rearing worms, and reeling silk, are kept quite distinct, and are performed by different persons. The cocoons used at the factories are either bought by contract direct from the breeders, or through commission agents. The European factory at Ganutiá, and its branch filatures, have been alluded to above. But in addition to these there are numerous little village filatures, worked by native families. These village filatures, with perhaps one pair of basins apiece, are situated in the peasant's homestead, and worked in a very rude way. The raw silk from the English factory finds its way to the Calcutta and European markets. That reeled in the villages is partly consumed locally, and partly sent to the Murshidábád market, and to the silk-consuming towns of the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab. Some part also finds its way to the looms of Surat and Ahmadábád in Bombay, or is worked up into *dhuñi* fringes in the Central Provinces. The Bombay weavers buy a kind of raw silk called *bhursut* woven from ten cocoons, and therefore thicker than the five or six cocoon thread which finds favour in the Calcutta market. The local fabrics of silk are plain piece-goods; but very little silk-weaving is carried on. The weavers who manufacture silk fabrics generally work under a system of advances from the Murshidábád silk dealers. A few, however, are sufficiently enterprising to invest their little capital on their own account.

Tasar silk is manufactured in the western parts of the District, and at Ilambázár on the north bank of the Ajái. The trade in *tasar* silk cloth has declined of late years, owing to a falling off in the demand in the Calcutta market. Cotton-weaving is carried on to a considerable extent, giving employment to 7500 cotton-weavers, and this industry appears to have more vitality in Birbhúm than in some other Bengal Districts. The cultivators buy in the market the cotton of the North-Western Provinces, have it spun into rude yarn by the women, and take the yarn to the village weaver, who weaves it up into coarse cloth, under the eye of the owner or a representative, who always sits by to see that the yarn is not stolen. Some widows eke out a livelihood by spinning cotton, and spinning the Bráhmañical thread is an occupation usually confined to Bráhmañ widows. The preparation of indigo and shell-lac are among the other industries, and attempts have recently been made to utilize the local supply of iron. The ores have long been worked on the rough native mode of smelting; and the object of

the recent attempts was to ascertain whether more extended operations might not be profitably carried out according to European processes, under competent supervision. Although the iron produced seems to have been of good quality and well suited for manufacturing purposes, the experiment was not a financial success, and the enterprise dropped.

Administration.—The administrative staff of the District in 1881-82 consisted of a Magistrate-Collector, Joint Magistrate, and European Deputy Collector, 4 native Deputy Collectors, District superintendent of police with 2 assistant, civil and sessions judge and sub-judge, 4 subordinate civil judges (*munsifs*), civil surgeon, district engineer, 12 honorary magistrates, 4 rural sub-registrars, etc. In consequence of the numerous changes which have taken place from time to time in the area of Bírghúm District, it is impossible to compare with any accuracy the revenue and expenditure at different periods; but the figures at our disposal show, in a very distinct way, the prosperity which the District has enjoyed under British rule. In 1790-91, the net revenue of the District, which then consisted of Bírghúm (including the greater part of the Santál Parganá) and Bishnupur, was £108,270, and the net civil expenditure £6281. At the time of the Permanent Settlement (1793), Bishnupur or Bánkurá was separated from Bírghúm, and in 1820-21 the revenue had fallen to £78,248, the expenditure being £11,930. In 1850-51, the revenue was £89,300, and the expenditure £23,719. In 1860-61, the revenue amounted to £93,795, and the expenditure to £23,207. Subsequent to 1860 the area of the District was further reduced by the transfer of several *parganá*s, but the revenue and expenditure continued to increase; and in 1870-71 the total net revenue was £102,841, or nearly the same as that of the united District in 1790, while the net civil expenditure was £28,054, or more than four times what it was in 1790. In 1881-82, after the area of the District had been increased by the transfer of Rámpur-hat police circle from Murshidábád, the total revenue of Bírghúm amounted to £124,372, and the net civil expenditure to £43,295, or seven times the amount of expenditure in 1790. In 1790-91, the joint land revenue of Bírghúm and Bánkurá amounted to £106,071; in 1870-71, the land revenue of Bírghúm alone was £73,558; and in 1881, £80,174. With the increasing prosperity of the District, the machinery for the protection of person and property has been improved. The police force employed for this purpose in 1881 consisted of (1) a regular police, composed of 2 superior and 47 subordinate officers and 208 constables; (2) a small municipal force of 1 native officer and 16 men for the protection of Surí; and (3) a village watch of 7614 *ghátwáls* and *chaukidárs*: total, 7898 officers and men, or 1 man to every 100 of the population. The cost of maintaining the District and municipal

police in 1881 was £5749, of which £5589 was derived from imperial funds, equal to an average of 3½d. per head of the population; and exclusive of an estimated sum of £13,392 contributed in money or lands by the *samindárs* and villagers. In 1881, 804 persons were convicted of 'cognisable' and 533 of 'non-cognisable' offences, or 1 person to every 594 of the population.

There are seven *thānds* or police circles in the District, namely—Suri, Dubrájpur, Sákulipur, Rámpur-hát, Maureswar, and Nalháti, besides nine outpost stations. There are two jails in Bírghúm, one at Suri, and the other (a lock-up) at Rámpur-hát. The daily average jail population in 1881 was 185·16, or 1 person always in jail to every 4294 of the population of the District. These figures are, however, illusory, as they include a large proportion of prisoners sent from the Santál Parganá, where there is no proper jail. Education has made rapid progress of late years. In 1856–57, there were only 3 Government and aided schools in the whole District; by 1872–73, the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 129, attended by 4439 pupils. In addition to these, there were 17 inspected unaided schools, attended by 445 pupils, and about 550 uninspected, with an estimated attendance of more than 7000 more. The total number of pupils attending inspected schools in that year was 4884. By 1881, the total number of Government aided and inspected schools had risen to 613, attended by 11,777 pupils, or 1 to every 67 of the population. The number of schools not inspected by the Department had fallen to 20 in 1881, with 399 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The mean annual temperature of Bírghúm, according to the latest calculation, is 77·25° F., and the average annual rainfall 56·49 inches. The District has long been famous for its salubrity; but unhappily within the last few years the epidemic fever of Bardwán, after effecting so much devastation in adjoining Districts, has extended to Bírghúm, causing great mortality, which has resulted in a decrease of the population to the extent of 6·95 per cent. during the nine years between 1872 and 1881. An account of this fever will be found in the article on BARDWAN. The only endemic diseases prevalent in the District are leprosy and elephantiasis; cholera has of late years become more general. [For further information regarding Bírghúm District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 311 to 457 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876). Also *Report on the District of Bírghúm*, by Captain W. S. Sherwill, Revenue Surveyor (1855); *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Birchigaon.—Mountain pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; on the route from Almorá by the river Gori and the Untha Dhúra Pass to South-Western Tibet. Lat. 30° 12' N., long. 80° 17' E.

Distant 114 miles north-east of Almora. Lies over the skirts of two peaks, with heights of 18,166 and 19,225 feet above the sea respectively; elevation of crest of pass, about 15,000 feet.

Birda Hills.—See BARDA HILLS.

Birganj.—Village and police station in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Dhápá, a tributary of the Purnabhábá river. Lat. $25^{\circ} 51' 30''$ N., long. $88^{\circ} 41' 40''$ E. Small local trade.

Birhar.—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the river Gogra, separating it from Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Azamgarh District; and on the south and west by Surharpur, Akbarpur, and Tándá *parganá*s. Picturesquely studded with clumps of bamboos, and groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. Area, 221 square miles, of which 122 are cultivated. Of the 387 villages which constitute the *parganá*, no less than 376 form the Birhar estate, held by eight Palwár Rájput proprietors, paying an aggregate Government land revenue of £14,219, out of a total of £15,989. All the villages except 12 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure. Population according to the Census of 1881—Hindus, 121,851; Muhammadans, 15,989: total, 137,840, namely, 69,650 males and 68,190 females. Bráhmans comprise 15 per cent. of the population; Rájputs, 5 per cent.; Korís and Kúrmís, altogether 4 per cent.; other Hindus, 64 per cent.; Muhammadans, 9 per cent. Markets held in 19 villages.

Biríá (*Bairiá*).—Town in Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 46'$ N., long. $84^{\circ} 31' 35''$ E., on the high road from Ballia to Chhaprá, and is almost equidistant from the Ganges and Gogra rivers. Population (1881) 9160, namely, 7564 Hindus, and 1596 Muhammadans; area of town site, 82 acres. A small municipal income is realized for police and conservancy purposes, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The town is little more than a conglomeration of mud-built houses, traversed from east to west by one good street. The import trade is of no importance, but there are considerable exports of sugar and coarse cloth. The town contains a number of sugar-refineries, the produce of which, together with that of the surrounding villages, is exported to Agra and Calcutta. Weaving looms number 350; the cloth manufactured is exported to Lower Bengal. Shoes and leather work are sent to Ballia, Gházípur, and Dumráon. Market twice a week. The nearest railway station is Raghunáthganj, on the East Indian Railway, 16 miles south of the town, on the opposite side of the Ganges.

Birkul (*Beercool*).—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the sea-coast in the south of the District, close to the north boundary of Balasor. Lat. $21^{\circ} 40' 40''$ N., long. $87^{\circ} 32'$ E. Population (1881) 150. Birkul has long been known as a pleasant hot-weather retreat

from Calcutta, and was a favourite resort of Warren Hastings. Proposals have been put forth to make the place a summer sanitarium, but no practical steps have yet been taken to that end. There is a delightful sea-breeze, and the only drawback is scarcity of fresh water, which has to be brought from a considerable distance. Travellers' bungalow. Birkul is distant about 26 miles by road from the sub-divisional station of Kánthi (Contaj).

Birkul.—Embankment in Midnapur District, Bengal; commences at Khádálgobrá village in Birkul *parganá*, and, running generally parallel with the coast-line of the Bay of Bengal for a distance of 41 miles, terminates at the village of Syámchak in Keorámal *parganá*. This line of embankment is now called the sea-dyke.

Birnagar (or *Udá*).—Town in Ránághát Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. $23^{\circ} 14' 30''$ N., long. $88^{\circ} 36' 10''$ E. Population (1881) 4321, namely, males 1947, and females 2374. A second-class municipality, with an income in 1881 of £273. A festival lasting three days, and attended by 10,000 pilgrims, is held here in June, in honour of the goddess Ulái Chandí, the goddess of cholera, one of the forms of the wife of Siva.

Birpur.—Village in Bhágálpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier. Lat. $26^{\circ} 32' 30''$ N., long. $87^{\circ} 3' 30''$ E.; population about 3660. A brisk trade was formerly carried on here; but the place is fast losing its importance, as the merchants, fearing that further inroads of the Kúsi river may carry away their storehouses, are gradually abandoning the village.

Birsilpur (*Barsalpur*).—Town in Jaisalmir (Jeysulmere) State, Rájputána; on the route from Baháwalpur to Báp, 90 miles south-east of the former. Lat. $28^{\circ} 11' 20''$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 15' 5''$ E.; population about 2000. The town is said to have been founded in the 2nd century: it contains a small fort, completely commanded by a high sandhill a mile to the south-west.

Birúdankaráyapúram.—The ancient capital of the Chálukya kings, in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. The present village of BIKKAVOLU (*q.v.*), which occupies the old site, abounds in ruins of the former town.

Birúpá.—River of Cuttack District, Bengal; an offshoot from the left or north bank of the Mahánadí, from which river it branches opposite the town of Cuttack. After flowing north-east for about 15 miles, nearly parallel with the Calcutta road, it receives on its left bank the Gengutí, which, after receiving the waters of the Kelo, again joins the Birúpá. The river afterwards joins the Bráhmañí, and its waters ultimately find their way into the Bay of Bengal by the Dhámrá estuary.

Birúr.—Town and mart in Kadur District, Mysore, on the Bangalore-Shimoga road. Lat. $13^{\circ} 36' 10''$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 0' 40''$ E.; population

(1872) 3617, namely, 3254 Hindus, 361 Muhammadans, and 2 Jains; number of houses, 629. Large traffic in cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, grain, and other produce; annual value of transactions, nearly 50 *lákhs* of rupees (£500,000).

Bisáli.—Pass in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. $12^{\circ} 44'$ N., long. $75^{\circ} 41'$ E. Formerly of some importance as connecting Mangalore with Seringapatam, but now fallen into disrepair, and practicable for pack-bullocks only. As being the shortest route to Subramani, where a great annual fair is held, the cattle-breeders on the other side use this route. A village of the same name stands at one end of the pass, on the road from Bangalore to Mangalore; lat. $12^{\circ} 45'$ N., long. $75^{\circ} 45'$ E.

Bísalnagar (*Visnagar* or *Visalnagar*).—Sub-division of the Kadí District of Baroda, in the Gáekwár's territories; area, 227 square miles; number of towns and villages, 58. Population (1881) 81,842, namely, Hindus, 74,777; Muhammadans, 4203; Jains, 2858; 'others,' 4. In the north and east, the country is bare and treeless, but towards the west and south trees are numerous, and the aspect of the country is more cheerful. The surface soil is light and sandy, and the Sub-division is watered by the Rupen river. At the village of Gothiva is a well which has attained a wide celebrity for the medicinal properties of its water, considered excellent for fever patients.

Bísalnagar.—Town in the Kadí District of the Gáekwár's territories of Baroda, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Bísalnagar Sub-division; on the route from Mhau (Mhow) to Dísá, 220 miles north-west of former, 50 miles south-west of latter, also 14 miles north-east of Unjá, and 11 miles east of Mesána. Lat. $23^{\circ} 2' 20''$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 42' 50''$ E.; population (1881) 19,602, namely, 9615 males and 9987 females. Bísalnagar is the original seat of one of the six classes of Nágár-Bráhmans, many of whom are now followers of Swámi Náráyan, the religious reformer, whom Bishop Heber met in Gujarát in 1825. There is a considerable transit trade in iron and other heavy goods for Márwár. Manufacture of cotton cloth and copper vessels. Contains the public offices of the District and assistant judges, several *dharm-sáls*, police station, jail, a public garden with a bungalow in it, and two schools.

Bisalpur.—*Tahsíl* of Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 370 square miles, of which 228 are cultivated; population (1881) 179,350; land revenue, £30,544; total revenue, £32,391; rental paid by cultivators, £57,074. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with police stations (*thánás*) at Bisalpur, Balsanda, and Barkherá. Strength of regular police, 37 men; municipal police, 70; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 457.

Bisalpur.—Town in Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces, and

head-quarters of Bisalpur *tahsil*; distant 24 miles east from Bareilly, and 2 miles east of the river Deoha. Lat. $28^{\circ} 17' 35''$ N., long. $79^{\circ} 50' 33''$ E.; population (1881) 8903, namely, 6159 Hindus and 2744 Muhammadans; area, 142 acres. Municipal income in 1880-81, £333; expenditure, £298; average incidence of taxation, $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head of municipal population. The town is skirted with shady groves on all sides except the south. It has the general appearance of an overgrown agricultural village of mud huts, with a few scattered brick buildings. But of late years its centre has been adorned with a neat market-place, in which 4 well-kept metalled roads meet. The official quarter is to the south, where are situated the sub-divisional courts and buildings, police station, school, branch dispensary, and post-office. North of the town is a fine square masonry tank surrounded by *dharmshālas*, temples, and other Hindu buildings. An annual fair for cattle and country produce is held in the village. A weekly market is also held, grain and coarse sugar being the principal staples of trade.

Bisambha (*Bahsuma*).—Town in Mawāna *tahsil*, Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Bijnaur road, 23 miles from Meerut town. The population consists for the most part of Jāts, Gújars, and Baniyās. Manufacture of saddlery and leather ware of excellent quality. Police station, post-office, and weekly market. Good encamping ground for troops.

Bisauli.—*Tahsil* of Budāun District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, and comprising the *pargands* of Satāsi, Bisauli, and Islāmnagar. Area, 343 square miles, of which 289 are cultivated; population (1881) 187,658; land revenue, £21,478; total revenue, £24,060; rental paid by cultivators, £55,737. The *tahsil* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; strength of regular police, 39 men; village watchmen (*chaukidars*), 437.

Bisauli.—Town in Budāun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bisauli *tahsil*, situated 24 miles north-west of Budāun town, on the high road between Budāun and Chandausi, in lat. $28^{\circ} 18'$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 59'$ E. Population (1881) 4482, namely, 2691 Hindus, 1785 Muhammadans, and 6 Christians. A small municipal revenue, in the shape of a house-tax, is levied for police and conservancy purposes, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, amounting to £105 in 1881-82. The town is situated on a commanding spot, overlooking the valley of the Sot, and contains a fine fort built in 1750 by Dundī Khān, lieutenant of the famous Rohillā chief Hāfiz Rahmat Khān. A rest-house, mosque, and ruined palace built at the same time still survive. The town contains the ordinary Government buildings, *tahsil*, *munsifi*, police station, post-office, dispensary, etc. Bisauli declined in importance after the fall of the Rohillā power, but since the

opening of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, trade has begun to revive. Weekly market.

Bisauli.—District and town in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* BASOHLI.

Bisáwar.—Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the road from Kandauli to Muttra, 6 miles north of the Jumna. Lat. $27^{\circ} 23' 30''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 56' 30''$ E.; area, 57 acres; population (1881) 4774. Originally surrounded by dense jungle, of which scarcely a vestige now remains; partly cleared about 1100 A.D. by Rám Jadun Thákur, whose descendants still hold two-thirds of the village lands. Agricultural centre of little commercial importance.

Bishangarh.—Town in Chhibramau *tahsil*, Farukhabád District, North-Western Provinces, situated at the intersection of two roads, 6 miles south-west of Chhibramau town. The town contains a District post-office, village school, and a castle or fort, the residence of the richest landholder of the District. Station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, 518 feet above sea-level. Market twice a week.

Bishanpur Narhan Khás.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal; situated near the west bank of the Little Gandak. Lat. $25^{\circ} 42'$ N., long. $86^{\circ} 3'$ E. Population (1881) 5963, namely, 5794 Hindus and 169 Muhammadans. Contains a stone temple and five brick temples dedicated to Siva, built by the Narhan Bábus, relatives of the Maharájá of Benares, who have their residence here, and help to support an aided school in the village. Road to Dalsinh-sarái and Ruserá. Two fairs are held during the year.

Bishenpur.—Town in Bánkura District, Bengal.—*See* BISHNUPUR.

Bíshkhálí.—A river of the Bákarganj Sundarbans, Bengál. Flows from north-east to south-west, from Nayamatí Hát to the sea, a distance of 45 miles; average width in dry season, 1000 yards. Lat. $21^{\circ} 59' 45''$ – $22^{\circ} 34' 15''$ N., long. $90^{\circ} 2' 45''$ – $90^{\circ} 24'$ E. Navigable by native boats throughout the year.

Bishnupur.—Sub-division of Bánkura District, Bengal; formed in 1879, and consisting of the police circles (*thánás*) of Bishnupur, Kotalpur, Indas, and Sonámukhi. Area, 700 square miles; towns and villages, 1504; number of houses, 84,703, of which 75,579 are occupied and 9124 unoccupied. Population (1881) 394,667, namely, Hindus, 356,581; Muhammadans, 33,906; Christians, 9; Sontháls, 4154; and 'others,' 17; average density of population, 563·81 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·15; number of persons per village, 564; houses per square mile, 110; persons per occupied house, 5·22. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; strength of regular police, 164 men; village watchmen and road police (*chaukidárs* and *ghátwáls*), 1315.

Bishnupur (Bishenpur).—The ancient capital of Bánkura District,

Bengal, under its native Rájás; now a municipality, and the most populous town in the District; situated a few miles south of the Dhalkisor river. Lat. $23^{\circ} 4' 40''$ N., long. $87^{\circ} 22' 45''$ E. Population (1881) 18,863, namely, 18,138 Hindus, 639 Muhammadans, and 86 'others.' Municipal income in 1881-82, £416; incidence of municipal taxation, $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head of population within municipal limits. Bishnupur is one of the principal seats of commerce in Bánkurá District. Chief exports—rice, oil-seeds, lac, cotton and silk cloth, silk cocoons, etc.; imports—English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, cocoa-nuts, pulses, etc. There are several market-places in the town. It contains a large weaving population, and is noted for the manufacture of cotton and silk cloth of fine quality. Besides the usual public offices, there are several schools, a number of Hindu temples, and some Muhammadan mosques. The old military high road from Calcutta to the North-Western Provinces passed through the town. Ancient Bishnupur, if we may put any trust in the native chroniclers, was a magnificent city, 'more beautiful than the beautiful house of Indra in heaven.' It was fortified by a connected line of curtains and bastions, 7 miles in length, with small circular ravelins covering many of the curtains. The citadel lies within the fortifications, and here was situated the palace of the Rájás. The ruins are very curious and interesting. Near the south gateway are the remains of an extensive series of granaries; and inside the fort, which is overgrown with jungle, lies an immense iron gun, $10\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, the gift, according to tradition, of a deity to one of the Rájás. In the last century, the Rájá of Bishnupur figures in the Company's records as one of the most important of the Hindu nobility of Bengal. In the map to the Abbé Raynal's *History of the East and West Indies* (London edition, 1776), 'Bissenpour' and Calcutta are the only two cities which appear in large letters in the present Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. For further information based on the local records, see my *Annals of Rural Bengal*.

Bison Range (native name, *Pápi-Konda*).—The highest part of the hills which form the northern frontier of Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. Height, about 3000 feet. Situated to the west of the magnificent gorge by which the Godávarí enters the District; the range is remarkable for its fine scenery and abundance of large game; its sides are clothed with luxuriant teak forest.

Bisrámpur.—Village in Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur. Lat. $23^{\circ} 2' N.$, long. $83^{\circ} 14' 10'' E.$ The residence of the chief, Mahárájá Indrajit Singh. Contains a school supported by the Rájá and the principal landholders. A weekly market is held in the village, attended only by people living in the immediate neighbourhood.

Bisrámpur Coal-Field.—The name given to an area of coal measure rocks, situated in the eastern portion of the comparatively low-

lying ground in the centre of Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur. It occupies an area of about 400 square miles, throughout which, except in the river-beds or their immediate neighbourhood, and on a few small hills, no rocks are exposed, a covering of alluvium concealing oil. Good coal exists in abundance, and in a suitable condition for working, but borings (which could alone furnish facts sufficiently trustworthy for estimating the extent and thickness of individual seams, and generally the total amount of coal existing in the field) have not yet been made. It is, however, very probable that when the series of railways it is proposed to construct on and near the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, are completed, that these mines will be extensively worked. A road could be easily made from the Lohárdagá plateau to Sargújá. A detailed account of the field has been given by Mr. V. Ball, from whose paper, quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 225–228, the above information is taken.

Bissau (*Basud*).—Town in Shaikhawátí District, Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, about 120 miles north-west of Jaipur town. Population (1881) 6546, namely, Hindus, 5121; and Muhammadans, 1425. The town is walled, and possesses a fort of some pretensions; post-office.

Bissemkatak.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 30' 30" N., long. 83° 33' E.; houses, 415; population (1881) 1726, principally retainers and servants of the Tát Rájá, the feudatory at the head of the military force of Jaipur. The only building of any importance is the Rájá's fort, an erection of mud. The inhabitants being suspected of the practice of human sacrifice, this town was included in the proscribed circle of the Meriah Agency in 1851.—*See* JAIPUR.

Bissemkatak.—One of the 7 Kandh *muttas* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, proscribed by the officers of the Meriah Agency in 1851 as addicted to human sacrifice. It contains 497 villages divided into 8 *sub-muttas*—Kanakaládi, Jigáda, Sogáta, Kojiri, Ambodalu, Bhangoda, Jagdampur, and Kutragoda. Situated west of Rayabigi, in the highly cultivated country of the Deshya or 'outer' Kandhs (as distinguished from the Kotiya or mountaineer Kandhs, who inhabit only a few villages), with Bissemkatak, the capital of the Tát Rájá, as its chief town. All the villages are under supervision. The *taluk* enjoys considerable trade, exporting grain, tobacco, saffron, mustard and gingelly seeds, and unrefined sugar in exchange for iron, cloths, and salt.

Biswán.—*Tahsil* or Sub-division of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded north by Nighásan, east by Bahraich, south by Bári, and west by Sítápur *tahsils*. Area, 573 square miles, of which 389 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £31,432. Population (1881) 246,464, namely, Hindus, 208,114; Muhammadans, 38,328; Jains, 22. Number of villages or towns, 508; average density of population, 430 per square

mile. The *tahsil* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Biswán, Tambaur, and Kundri (North). The administrative staff consists of a *tahsildár* and *munsif* at Biswán town, and two honorary Assistant-Commissioners at Mallanpur and Rámpur-Muttra. These officers preside over 2 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 62 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 1049.

Biswán.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Láharpur and Tambaur, on the east by Kundri, on the south by Mahmudábád and Bári, and on the west by Pírnagar and Khairábád. The land in the east of the *parganá* is very low, and much cut up by small streams leading to the Chauka, which marks the boundary line. West of this lies a rich tract of country, always green, owing to the proximity of water to the surface, and bearing fine crops. A high ridge of land, which appears to have formed once the right bank of the Chauka, runs through the *parganá*. The extreme west lies high. Area, 220 square miles, or 140,688 acres, of which 98,721 are cultivated, and 26,220 cultivable but not under tillage. Of the 215 villages composing the *parganá*, 99 are held under *tálukdári* and 116 under *zamindári* tenure: 81 villages are owned by Rájput landlords, 57 by Muhammadans, 46 by Káyasths, and 29 by Seths. Population (1881) 105,559; average density of population, 479 per square mile. Bi-weekly markets held in 16 villages.

Biswán.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Biswán *tahsil* and *parganá*; 21 miles east of Sítápur, on the road to Gonda and Faizábád. Lat. $27^{\circ} 29' N.$, long. $81^{\circ} 2' E.$ Said to have been founded about 500 years ago, by an ascetic named Biswánáth. Population (1881), including Jalálpur, 8148, of whom 4601 are Hindus, principally Bráhmans, or belonging to artisan castes; Muhammadans number 3525, and Jains 22; area of town site, 355 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £311, or an average of 9½d. per head of municipal population. Daily market; annual sales, about £15,000. Principal buildings—palace, mosque, tomb, and caravanserai, erected by onr Shaikh Bári; 21 Muhammadan mosques; 17 Hindu temples. The Government buildings consist of the usual courts, police station, post-office, registration office, school.

Bithar.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 10 miles south-east of Unáo town, on the road from that place to Rái Bareli. Lat. $26^{\circ} 25' 20'' N.$, long. $80^{\circ} 36' 25'' E.$ The head-quarters of the Ráwat tribe, who formerly owned the whole of the large *parganá* of Harha, in which the village is situated. Population (1881) 3187, namely, Hindus, 3001; and Muhammadans, 186. Ten Sivaite temples; bi-weekly market; Government school.

Bithúr (Bithaur).—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the south bank of the Ganges, 12 miles north-west

of Cawnpur City. Lat. $26^{\circ} 36' 50''$ N., long. $80^{\circ} 19'$ E.; population (1881) 6685, namely, 5970 Hindus and 715 Muhammadans; area of town site, 217 acres. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Picturesque front facing the river, adorned by *gháts* or bathing steps, temples, and handsome residences. The principal *ghát*, built by Rájá Tikáit Rái, minister of Gházi-ud-dín Haidar, Nawáb of Oudh, with an imposing Saracenic arcade on its upper platform, is known as the Bráhma *ghát*, being sacred to that god; and a bathing fair is held there on the full moon in November. Báji Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, was banished to Bithúr, and had extensive palaces in the town. His adopted son, Dandhu Panth, better known as the Náná Sáhib, was the instigator of the massacre at CAWNPUR. The town was captured by Havelock's force on the 19th of July 1857, when the Náná's palaces were utterly destroyed; but he himself succeeded in making good his escape. On the 16th of August, after Havelock's first unsuccessful attempt to reach Lucknow, Bithúr was once more retaken, and never again lost. Its population and importance have greatly declined since the extinction of its local court. Large numbers of Bráhmans reside in the town, and superintend the bathing festivals. A branch of the Ganges Canal is in course of construction to Bithúr.

Bitraganta.—Village in the Kaváli *taluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. The annual fair held here in honour of Venketeswaraswámí attracts 4000 persons. Weaving forms the chief industry of the place. Population (1881) 1015, namely, 995 Hindus and 20 Muhammadans.

Black Pagoda.—Ruined temple in Purí District, Orissa.—See KANARAK.

Blue Mountain.—Principal peak (7100 feet high) in the Yoma range, at the north-west of Akyab District, British Burma, lat. $22^{\circ} 37'$ N., and long. $93^{\circ} 10'$ E.

Boálmári.—Trading village in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Báraisia river. Lat. $23^{\circ} 23'$ N., long. $89^{\circ} 48' 30''$ E. Chief trade—rice, piece-goods, country cloth, cotton twist and yarn, jute, and tobacco. The resident population of the village in 1881 was returned at only 111, but the weekly market on Sundays is attended by a large number of non-residents.

Bobbili.—An estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. $18^{\circ} 22'$ to $18^{\circ} 46'$ N., long. $83^{\circ} 10'$ to $83^{\circ} 20'$ E.; area, 227 square miles, containing 178 villages, with 29,023 houses, and (1881) 139,974 inhabitants, almost all Hindus: males, 69,666; females, 70,308. Surrounded by the British *taluks* of Chipúrpal, Vizianágaram, Sálúr, Palkonda, and Bobbili. It consists of 3 *pargands*, Bobbili, Rájam, and Kávite, and yields to its owner a revenue of £37,500 per annum. Of

this, £8977 is paid to Government as tribute or *peshkash*. This estate is one of the most ancient in the Presidency, and possesses an interesting history. When, in 1652, Sher Muhammad Khán, the Nawáb of CHICACOLE, entered the District, there followed in his train two rivals—the one Peddaráyudu, the ancestor of the present chief of Bobbili, the other the ancestor of the Vizianágaram family; and from this time dates the rivalry between the two houses. Peddaráyudu soon after received, in reward for gallantry, the estate of Rájam, where he built a fort, naming it Bobbili (the royal tiger), in honour of his patron's designation, Sher (tiger). This estate bordered on Vizianágaram, and the ill-feeling between the chiefs was fomented by constant embroilment. In 1756, the turbulence of the Poligars called for measures of repression, and M. Bussy marched with a European force to restore order. On his reaching Vizianágaram, the Rájá assured him that the chief of Bobbili was the instigator of all disturbances, and to testify his own loyalty, joined the French with a force of 11,000 men to assist in crushing his rival. Before attacking him, Bussy offered the chief a pardon for the past, and lands of equal value elsewhere, if he would abandon his ancestral estate; but the offer was refused.

The attack which followed on the fort at Bobbili is one of the most memorable in Franco-Indian history. At daybreak, the field-pieces began to play on the mud defences, practicable breaches were at once made, and the assault sounded. After four hours' desperate hand-to-hand fighting, Bussy called off his men to allow the cannon to widen the breaches. A second assault was then ordered, but with no better results, for not a man had gained footing within the ramparts, when, five hours later, Bussy again withdrew the storming party to repeat the argument of artillery. The defenders now recognised their desperate position, and collecting their wives and families, put them to death, and returned to their posts. The assault soon recommenced; and when at sunset Bussy entered the fort as victor with the remnant of his army, it was only because every man of the garrison was dead or desperately wounded. An old man, however, crept from a hut, and leading a child to Bussy, presented him as the son of the dead chief. Four other men had preserved their lives; and two nights later, when the Vizianágaram camp was buried in sleep, they crept into the Rájá's tent, and before the sentries had discovered and shot down the assassins, they had stabbed the Rájá to death with thirty-two wounds.

The child Chinna Ranga Ráo, saved from the slaughter, was invested by Bussy with the chiefship of the lands that had been offered to his father; but before he attained his majority, his uncle regained by force of arms the former estate of Rájam. At last the Vizianágaram family compromised with their rivals, and leased to them the Kávite and Rájam *pargands*. The old feud, however, again broke out, and the

Bobbili chief fled into the Nizám's country. But in 1794, when the Vizianágaram estate was dismembered, Chinna Ranga Ráo was restored by the British to his father's domains, and in 1801 a permanent settlement was concluded with his son at an annual tribute of £9000. Since then the peace of the estate has been undisturbed.

Bobbili.—Town in the Bobbili estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. $18^{\circ} 34' N.$, long. $83^{\circ} 25' E.$; houses, 3010; population (1881) 14,946, namely, 14,545 Hindus, 329 Muhammadans, 38 Christians, and 34 'others.' Situated about 70 miles north-west of Vizagapatam. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it possesses a sub-magistrate's court, a sub-registrar's office, dispensary, school, etc. A fortified enclosure in the centre of the town surrounds the temple and the residence of the chief.—*See BOBBILI ESTATE, supra.*

Bod.—The most westerly of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between $20^{\circ} 13'$ and $20^{\circ} 53' 30'' N.$ lat., and between $83^{\circ} 36' 45''$ and $84^{\circ} 50' E.$ long.; area, including the KANDH-MALS (under British administration), 2064 square miles; population (1881) 130,103. The State is bounded on the north by the Mahánadí river, separating it from Sonpur State in the Central Provinces, and from Athmallik State; on the east by Daspallá; on the south by the Madras States of Goomsur (Gumsar) and Kimidi; and on the west by Patná and Sonpur States in the Central Provinces, from which it is separated by the Tel river. Bod is under the supervision of the Commissioner of Cuttack and the Government of Bengal. To the south of Bod proper, are the Kandh Hills, now under British management, but formerly feudatory to the Bod Rájá. The tract comprising the Kandh-máls consists of a broken plateau intersected by ridges of low hills, the last refuge of the Kandh race. The principal hills in the State are—Bondigará on the southern border, 3308 feet high; Bankomundí, 2080 feet; and Siánángá, 1917 feet.

The population of Bod, including the Kandh-máls, numbered in 1881, 130,103, living in 1741 villages and 16,409 houses; number of males 66,754, females 63,349; average density of population per square mile, 63; persons per village, 74; persons per house, 7.9. Classified according to religion, the Census thus divides the population: Hindus, 93,011; Muhammadans, 73; Christian, 1; aboriginal tribes, 37,018. Separate details of the population, etc., of the Kandh-máls will be found in the article on that tract. The following are the figures for Bod proper without the Kandh-máls. Total population, 71,144, living in 856 villages and 14,242 houses; number of males 36,723, females 34,421; persons per village, 83; persons per house, 5. Classified according to religion, the Census thus divides the population: Hindus, 71,075; and Muhammadans, 69. There is a considerable aboriginal population in Bod, but owing to a different system of classification

between the Census of 1872 and 1881, only those who still cling to their ancient religion have been returned by the last Census as aborigines, and in Bod proper they are included among the Hindus.

The Mahánadí, which forms the northern boundary of the State, and the Tel, which borders it on the west, afford excellent facilities for water carriage; but except a little *sál* timber, none of the produce of the country is exported. Weekly markets are held at eight villages, the principal commodities sold being coarse rice, oil-seeds, and jungle products. The largest and most important village, and the residence of the Rájá, is Bod (lat. $29^{\circ} 50' 20''$ N., long. $84^{\circ} 21' 41''$ E.), in the north of the State on the right bank of the Mahánadí, 190 miles from the sea. The only other village of any size is Jagatigarh.

The State yields an estimated revenue of £2400 a year to its chief; the tribute to the British Government is £80. The reigning family claims an uninterrupted descent from a stranger who founded the petty principality about a thousand years ago; they are Rájputs of the Solar race. The Rájá's militia in Bod proper consists of 22 men, and his police force is of the same strength. He maintains a school. A post-office has recently been established.

Bodá.—An extensive *zamindári* (estate) belonging to the Rájá of Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Area, 475 square miles; number of villages, 288; number of houses, 37,111. Population (1881) 194,915, of whom 100,278 are males and 94,637 females. Average density of population, 410 per square mile; villages per square mile, '6; houses per square mile, 78; persons per village, 676; persons per house, 5'2. Chief town, with revenue court of the Rájá, Bodá; lat. $26^{\circ} 12' N.$, long. $88^{\circ} 38' E.$

Bodánones.—Petty State of Und-Sarviya District, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of one village, with one independent tribute-payer. Lat. $21^{\circ} 24' 0''$ N., long. $71^{\circ} 50' 0''$ E.; estimated revenue (1881) £105, of which £10 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár, and 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bodhan.—Village and place of pilgrimage in the Mándvi Sub-division, Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. $21^{\circ} 20' N.$, long. $73^{\circ} 7' E.$; population (1872) 3305. No later return of population is available. The fair is held when the planet Jupiter enters the constellation of the Lion, an event which happens every twelve years; about 2000 people attend, the majority being from Surat, Broach, and Ahmadábád Districts, and from Baroda and Rájpipla territory. The last fair was held in September 1872. The temple contains the image of Gautameshwar Máhadeo, in whose honour the fair is held. The temple holds lands free of rent.

Bodh Gayá.—See BUDDH GAYÁ.

Bodináyakanúr.—Estate in Madúra District, Madras Presidency.

Area, 98 square miles, containing 21 villages and hamlets, with 6509 houses, and (1871) 34,497 inhabitants. Later information is not available. Situated in the valley between the Travancore and Palāni ranges, watered by the Tenj river. This estate was one of the original 72 Naiakais Palaiyam of Madúra, the family having emigrated from Gooty (Gúti) in 1336 A.D. It was resumed by Haidar Ali in 1776, and after an interval of semi-independence, again reduced by Tipú. The Rájá of Travancore subsequently seized the estate, but in 1793 the Bodináyakanúr chief recovered possession. When, in 1795, the Company's officers proceeded to the settlement of the District, they were resisted by the chief of Bodináyakanúr, and the party was fired upon. It was one of the largest of the 24 Palaiyams then settled, containing 30 villages, and yielding about £7000 per annum. Annual tribute paid to Government, £1534.

Bodináyakanúr.—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. $10^{\circ} 0' 50''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 25' 0''$ E.; population (1881) 14,759, namely, 13,914 Hindus, 619 Muhammadans, and 226 Christians; houses, 2508. Situated 65 miles west of Madúra. The head-quarters (*kasbá*) of a large estate of the same name.

Bodwad (*Botáwad*).—Town in the Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. $20^{\circ} 52' 15''$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 2' 0''$ E. Situated on the main road from Aurangábád to Burhánpur, 80 miles north-east of Aurangábád, and 2 miles south of the Nargám station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 5282, namely, Hindus, 4307; Muhammadans, 847; Jains, 73; and 'others,' 55. Area of town site, 60 acres. Important trade in cotton, linseed, and other oil-seeds; post-office. The houses are for the most part poor and badly built, and the streets narrow, crooked, and dirty. Bodwad was once a place of some consequence, and the ruined remains of an old fort, city gateways, and an old reservoir still exist.

Boggerú.—River in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Rising among the Gháts at Boggu Venkátapuram, it drains the country west and south of the Durgám, and flowing through Atmakúr, it joins the Pennér at Sangám, where the two rivers have overspread a considerable tract with alluvial deposits. The Atmakúr *tdluk* to some extent, and the Udayagiri *tdluk* almost entirely, depend upon the Boggerú for irrigation.

Bogoola.—Village in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—See BAGULA.

Bogra (*Bagurá*).—District occupying the east central portion of the Rájsháhí Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between $24^{\circ} 32' 15''$ and $25^{\circ} 18' 30''$ N. lat., and between $88^{\circ} 54' 15''$ and $89^{\circ} 48' 0''$ E. long., its eastern boundary being roughly formed by the main channel of the Brahmaputra; area, 1498 square miles;

population, according to the Census of 1881, 734,358 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at BOGRA town on the Karatoyá river.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the usual appearance of an alluvial tract, consisting of one level plain, seamed with river-beds and studded with marshes. It naturally divides into two portions of unequal size, an eastern tract forming part of the valley of the Brahmaputra, and closely resembling the country in Maimansingh on the opposite bank; and a western and larger portion, which merges into the undulating clay lands of Dinájpur. Both these tracts are profoundly modified by the fluvial action of the great streams which flow through or over them; but the boundary between the two constitutes an important landmark in the geographical system of Bengal. The soil of the Brahmaputra valley is pure alluvion of a whitish colour, locally called *pálí*, the recent deposit of the river floods. In the western tract the soil is a stiff clay of a reddish colour, known as *khiár*, which rests upon a lower stratum of sand; the country is generally above flood-level, and much overgrown with scrub jungle. In this region are situated the peculiar plots of mulberry-land, which are raised by trenching and embankment above the danger of inundation.

The river system is constituted by the numerous channels of the great river of Rangpur, which is variously known as the TISTA or Atrái. The BRAHMAPUTRA itself, locally termed the Dáokobá or Hatchet-cut, only fringes the eastern frontier of the District as far as the junction of the MANAS. The other rivers of the District are the JAMUNA, NAGAR, KARATOYA or PHULJUR, BANGALI, and MANAS. Most of these intermingle with one another by cross streams; and they fall ultimately either into the Atrái, or directly into the Brahmaputra. They are all portions of the same drainage system, and their comparative importance is so variable that it would be useless to describe the course of any particular channel in any given year. Historically, the Karatoyá was the main river which brought down towards the Ganges the great volume of Tístá water, before the disastrous floods of 1787. The width of its former bed is still pointed out, and numerous local traditions bear witness to its early importance. At present, it is one of the minor rivers of the District, and but little used for navigation. There are no lakes in Bogra, but marshes are numerous, especially in the east and south of the District, where the greater part of the country is a network of marshes interlacing in and out of the District. Most of these dry up from the end of January till the rains, but many are always flooded. Nothing has been done to drain any of these swamps, but several are silting up. All except the deepest are largely utilized for the cultivation of the long-stemmed variety of rice, which is generally sown from transplanted seedlings at the beginning of the rains, and grows with the rise of the water. The Collector of the

District reported in 1873 that this rice 'rises with the floods, however deep they may be. It is almost impossible to drown it. It grows as high as 23 feet, and can bear submersion for two or three weeks together without suffering much injury.' Large forests formerly existed in this District, but they have in most cases been ruthlessly cut down, a few large patches remaining only in the police divisions of Páncsbíbi and Sherpur. At the same time, the country is still fairly wooded, and many valuable forest trees are indigenous to it. The jungle products consist of various dyes, and beeswax. Ample pasture ground is found along the older sandy banks or *chars* of the Brahmaputra, which are always covered with coarse grass, and in places with the fine *dib* grass. These latter lands are left uncultivated, not in consequence of any infertility, but from fear of floods. The larger sorts of game in the District are the tiger, leopard, buffalo, deer, and wild pig. Small game, such as hares, pea-fowl, snipe, quail, ortolan, wild geese, wild duck, teal, and pigeons, is plentiful. Fish abound, being represented principally by the perch, carp, siluroid, and herring families; the fisheries form valuable properties.

History.—Bográ has no political history of its own. The District was first formed in 1821, out of certain *thánás* or police divisions taken from Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Rangpur. It was found necessary at that time to provide additional facilities for the administration of criminal justice in these outlying tracts, which could not be properly supervised from the head-quarters of their several Districts. This region, also, was then rising into notice as a remunerative field for European enterprise, in the form of indigo-planting and silk-winding. For these reasons, a Joint-Magistrate was stationed at Bográ town, in whom only criminal jurisdiction was vested. The duties of revenue collection, together with the title of Deputy-Collector, were added in 1832; but it was not till 1859 that Bográ was erected into an independent District with a Magistrate-Collector of its own. Even at the present day, traces may be found of the gradual growth of the several administrations, and much perplexity still exists with regard to the boundaries of the fiscal and magisterial areas. In accordance with a principle which has long lost its original utility, large estates were permitted, on removal from the criminal supervision of their old Districts, to continue to pay revenue into the parent treasury. The fiscal jurisdiction thus broken up has never been again reunited under a single authority. Again, considerable portions of Bográ were surveyed with the neighbouring Districts to which they had been once attached; and the numerous series of papers, which guarantee the efficiency of local administration, lie scattered at Rámpur Beauléah, Nasrábád, and Dinájpur. In addition to these fundamental causes of confusion, Bográ has experienced its full share of those frequent recti-

fications of the executive frontier, which so greatly destroy the value of all statistical comparisons throughout Bengal.

The historical interest of the District centres round MAHASTHAN GARH, and the town of SHERPUR. The former place is now a great mound of earth, bounded on one side by the dwindling stream of the Karatoyá, and strewn with bricks and a few carvings in stone. But when the Karatoyá was a great river, Mahásthán was the capital of an early Hindu dynasty, of which numerous traditions still live in the memories of the people. In later times it has become a Muhammadan place of pilgrimage, being associated with the name of Sháh Sultán, a *fakir* who figures prominently in the story of the Musalmán conquest. Sherpur town represents a more trustworthy epoch in Bengal history. It is mentioned by the Mughal chroniclers of the 16th century, and appears under the disguise of 'Ceerpoor Mirts' in the map of Bengal by Von den Broucke, the Dutch Governor of India in 1660. These notices it owed to its importance as a frontier post of the Muhammadans, previous to the establishment of the Nawábs of Dacca. It is now the residence of three Bráhma families, who rank among the wealthiest landholders in the district.

Population.—Various early estimates of the number of the population are extant, but it is not known that any of them were based upon trustworthy principles. The most plausible conjecture places the total at 900,000 souls, at a time when the District was larger by about one-third than it is now. The Census of 1872, with the District area the same as at present, disclosed a population of 689,467 persons. The latest enumeration, in 1881, returned the inhabitants of the District at 734,358, showing an increase of 44,891, or 6·5 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881. Area of District, 1498 square miles; number of villages, 4202; number of houses, 103,643, of which 99,473 were occupied and 4170 unoccupied. Average density of population, 490·23 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·81; houses per square mile, 69·19; persons per village, 175; persons per occupied house, 7·38. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 372,677, and the females 361,681. Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans numbered 593,411, or 80·80 per cent. of the entire population; Hindus 140,860, or 19·18 per cent.; Jains, 54; Buddhists, 2; Christians, 27; and 'others,' 4. It was one of the surprises revealed by the first regular Census of the District in 1872, that the Musalmáns constitute more than four-fifths of the inhabitants of the District. There can be no doubt that in Bográ, as throughout the rest of the Brahmaputra valley, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining outcastes beyond the pale of Hinduism. As elsewhere throughout India, almost the

entire Muhammadan population belong to the Hanafi sect of Sunnís. A certain proportion of them are said to be indoctrinated with the fanaticism of the reformed Faraizí sect; and so late as 1871, there was a State prosecution for Wahábí disaffection. The Musalmán fairs and places of pilgrimage are well attended, especially the ceremonies connected with the name of Ghází Miyán. Of the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the three cognate tribes of Koch, Páli, and Rájbarsí make up a total of 19,955 souls; and it is known that many of the Muhammadans belong to the same ethnical stock. Among the Hindus proper, Bráhmans number 4614; Rájputs, 372; Káyasths, 3759; and Baniyás, 7486. The most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, 15,566 members; and next, the Chandál, 9892; the Hari, 6999; and the Sunrí, with 6688. The boating and fishing castes collectively are strongly represented. Hindus not recognising caste are returned at 11,314, of whom 11,101 are set down as Vaishnavs. The Brahma Samáj is represented by a few followers in Bogra town, who assemble weekly in a meeting-house erected for the purpose. The occupations of the male inhabitants are classified in the Census report under one of the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and learned professions, 6295; (2) domestic servants, keepers of lodging-houses, etc., 3583; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 6412; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 186,118; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 22,512; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 10,137 labourers, 27 men of rank and property without occupation, and 137,593 unspecified), 147,757. Emigration from the District is unknown.

The population is almost entirely rural, and BOGRA town, with 6179 souls, is the only place with a population exceeding 5000. No tendency is observed on the part of the people towards urban life, but rather the reverse. Of the 4202 villages, 3003 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 969 from two to five hundred; 194 from five hundred to a thousand; 32 from one to two thousand; 2 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; and 1 from five to ten thousand.

The material condition of the people is said to have very much improved of late years, in consequence of the enhancement of prices of agricultural produce. This is due principally to better means of communication with the great commercial centres of Calcutta and Dacca, since the opening of the Eastern Bengal and Northern Bengal State Railways. The increased demand for fine rice has done much to enrich the inhabitants of the western portion of the District, whilst the rapid growth of the jute trade has done even more for those in the eastern portion. The people generally are advancing in wealth, social self-

respect and education ; and the number of those seriously in debt, that is, in the hands of the rice lender, is few. The Collector of the District in 1872-73, while reporting on the steadily increasing prosperity of the people, remarked : 'I learn, however, that in the northern parts of the District, a small section of the population are the victims of the merciless system of usury known as *adhiári*, which, literally translated, means 50 per cent. A peasant borrows a *maund* of rice, undertaking to pay a *maund* and a half in the following year. If he fails, the *maund* and a half is treated as a debt bearing compound interest. In course of time he assigns the produce of his holding to the creditor, and lives on such loans as it suits the latter to advance him until he becomes a mere serf.'

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District, being especially predominant in the clay tract west of the Karatoyá. The *áman* or winter rice crop, grown on low lands, is estimated to furnish 65 per cent. of the total food-supply ; and the *áus* or early crop, grown on high lands, about 30 per cent. In the Brahmaputra valley, oil-seeds are largely grown, and the cultivation of jute is on the increase. In 1872, the total area under jute was nearly 50,000 acres, chiefly in the police division Sháriákándí. The cultivation of sugarcane has fallen off since the early years of the present century. Leguminous plants and pulses are usually grown as a second crop in the east of the District after the rice harvest. The other crops, which include wheat, barley, *gánjá*, and mulberry, are insignificant. The principle of the rotation of crops is not practised, but fields are occasionally allowed to lie waste, and jute is never sown on the same land for more than three consecutive years. There is a considerable extent of waste land in most parts of the District, which is now in process of being reclaimed by hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur. River and tank water are both largely taken advantage of for irrigation purposes in the higher lands in the west of the District ; but in the eastern tracts, the annual floods of the Brahmaputra afford sufficient moisture to the soil, even when the rainfall is scanty. The rate of rent for rice land varies from 1s. 6d. to 12s. per acre. Special crops, such as mulberry, *gánjá*, and *pán*, pay exceptional rates. The total amount received by the *samíndárs* under the name of rent is almost universally augmented by the exaction of *ábwábs* or customary cesses. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of Bográ. At the time of the Permanent Settlement the greater part of the District was in the hands of three families, the Rájá of Dinájpur, the Rájá of Nattor, and the Muhammadan *samíndár* of Silbarsá. Considerable portions have at one time or another been severed from the revenue-paying estates, and are now held as *lákhiráj*. Old Musalmán endowments of this kind are particularly numerous.

The ordinary rates of wages, and also the prices of food-grains, have approximately doubled of late. In 1871, coolies and agricultural day-labourers received a little more than 4d. a day; smiths and carpenters, about 8d. In the same year, common rice sold at 4s. per cwt. In 1881, as the result of an unusually abundant harvest, the price of common rice fell to 3s. 4d. a cwt., or about 3s. a cwt. below the average of the three previous years. The highest price reached by rice during the scarcity of 1874 was 17s. per cwt., which was recorded in the month of July.

Bográ is liable, to some extent, to the calamity of drought; but a general destruction of the crops from floods is unknown. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the local supply fell short, and not a little distress was caused by the concurrent increase of the exports to other Districts. In 1874, the failure of the rice crop was more severe, but actual suffering was anticipated by the prompt intervention of Government. More than 8000 tons of food-grain were imported from Calcutta and Goálandá; and £50,000 in all was expended in relief. Since the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, and the completion of a system of minor roads to serve as feeders, every part of Bográ is now sufficiently provided with means of communication to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine.

Manufactures, etc.—The growth and preparation of indigo, which formerly attracted a large amount of European capital, has now entirely disappeared from the District. The industry of silk-spinning still lingers in the neighbourhood of Bográ town, but most of the other filatures have been closed, being unable to compete with the Chinese and Mediterranean producers. The manufacture of a coarse paper from jute is conducted in a few villages. The East India Company is said to have established its silk factories at Sherpur and Nandápára in this District, in the first decade of this century, and to have annually distributed £50,000 in the shape of advances to the rearers of cocoons. The Company abandoned manufacture on its own account in 1834.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. The chief exports are—rice, jute, mustard-seed, sugar, hides, tobacco, and *gánjá*. The imports are—salt, piece-goods, pulses, spices, brass ware, cocoa-nuts, and betel-nuts. The principal marts are—Hillí, Damdamá, Jamálganj, Bálabhárá, Naugáon, and Dubálhátí, on the Jamuná river; Gobindganj, Fakírganj, Gumániganj, Síbganj, Sultárganj, and Sherpur, on the Karatoyá; Dhúpchánchiá on the Nágar. Some of these are situated just beyond the District boundaries, but the business of all is chiefly concerned with Bográ produce. According to the registration returns for the year 1876-77 (the latest date for which I have information), the total exports from the District were valued at £247,479; the imports at £85,990. In addition, it is supposed that

a large portion of the Bográ trade, especially in the case of imports, is credited to the neighbouring Districts of Pabná and Rájsháhí. The chief exports were—rice, 584,000 *maunds*, and paddy, 46,100 *maunds*, valued together at £121,400; jute, 266,900 *maunds*, valued at £80,070. The imports comprised piece-goods (£35,190) and salt (39,800 *maunds*, valued at £19,900). The single mart of Hillí, which deals almost exclusively with Calcutta and Chandarnagar, despatched just one-third in value of the exports, including 359,600 *maunds* of rice. Next come Dhúpchánchiá, with an export of 62,300 *maunds* of rice; Mathurápára, which exported 51,000 *maunds* of jute; Díwántolá, 42,500 *maunds*; Maurechar, 36,900 *maunds*; Gosáinbárá, 28,300 *maunds*. Of the imports of piece-goods, Bográ town alone received £23,680. In 1881, the export of rice from Bogra District amounted to 1,400,000 *maunds*.

The Northern Bengal State Railway runs through Bográ District for a distance of 39 miles. Advantage was taken of the famine relief operations in 1874 to construct a system of minor roads to serve as feeders to the railway. These roads, which have an average width of 16 feet, are 15 in number, with an aggregate length of 137 miles. The total cost was about £30,000. Not a single road in the District is metalled. The chief means of communication are the natural water-courses, by which every village can be approached during the rainy season.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Bográ District amounted to £60,639, towards which the land-tax contributed £43,981, or 70 per cent.; the net expenditure was £14,857, or about one-quarter of the revenue. In 1881–82, the total revenue amounted to £64,238, of which £46,328, or 72·12 per cent., was derived from the land revenue. In the same year there was one covenanted officer stationed in the District, 5 magisterial courts open, and three Benches of 15 honorary magistrates. For police purposes the District is divided into 8 *thánds* or police circles, with three outposts. In 1881, the regular police force numbered 230 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4650. In addition, there was a municipal police of 32 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £286, and a rural police or village watch of 1864 men, maintained by the villagers and landholders. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2126 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 70 square mile of area, or to every 345 in the population. The District jail at Bográ town contained in 1881 a daily average of 184 prisoners.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the changes by which grants-in-aid were assigned, first to the middle-class vernacular schools, and afterwards to the village schools or *páthsháls*.

In 1856, there were only 8 inspected schools in the District, attended by 593 pupils. In 1870, the numbers had increased to 29 schools and 1221 pupils; and in 1881-82, to 127, with 3540 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected indigenous schools; and the Census Report in 1881 returned 14,795 boys and 1044 girls as under instruction, besides 26,405 other males and 1951 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The higher class English school at Bográ town was attended in 1881-82 by 223 pupils.

The sub-divisional system has not been extended to Bográ District. There are 32 *parganá*s or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 656 revenue-paying estates. In 1881, there were 2 civil judges and 5 stipendiary magistrates. The two municipalities of Bográ town and Sherpur contain together a total population of 10,175. In 1881-82, their aggregate municipal income was £832, the average rate of taxation being 1s. 3½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bográ is somewhat less hot than that of the Districts farther to the west. It has been observed that the wind, when blowing from the east, is perceptibly cooled by passing over the wide stream of the Brahmaputra. The average mean temperature is 78·77° F. The average annual rainfall for a period of 20 years ending in 1881, was 80·22 inches; but in 1873, only 36·64 inches fell, a deficiency which caused the scarcity of the following year. In 1881, the rainfall was 70·74 inches, or 9·48 inches below the average.

The prevailing diseases are fevers and bowel complaints of various kinds. Cholera is said to be endemic towards the south-west of the District, which is not far from the Chalan *bil*; and this disease occasionally breaks out with extreme epidemic severity. Small-pox has been checked in recent years by the increasing popularity of vaccination, especially among the Muhammadans. Goitre is reported to be prevalent in the tract where jute is grown and steeped. The vital statistics show a registered number of 15,349 deaths in 1881, or a rate of 24 or per thousand. There were, in 1882, three charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 8119 in-door and out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further particulars regarding Bográ District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. viii. pp. 129 to 317 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876); see also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881, and the *Annual Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bográ (*Bagurá*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Bográ District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Karatoyá river. Lat. 24° 50' 45" N., long. 89° 25' 50" E. Population (1881) 6179, namely, 2667 Hindus, 3463 Muhammadans, and 49 'others.' Municipal income in 1881-82, £483; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 6½d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town has

no interesting buildings; there are two markets, known as the Kálitálá and Málthinagar *hátts*.

Bokáro.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between $23^{\circ} 40'$ and $23^{\circ} 50'$ N. lat., and between $85^{\circ} 30'$ and $86^{\circ} 10'$ E. long., covering an area of 220 square miles; greatest length from east to west, 40 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles. It takes its name from the river Bokaro, which flows through the field for a distance of 27 miles. The coal series represented are the Tálcher, Dámodar, and Pánchet; the amount of available fuel has been estimated at 1500 millions of tons. Coal has of late years been regularly cut near the villages of Charhí, Phusro, Tapin-Pindra, and Bangahrá, to supply fuel for burning bricks in Hazáribágh, and some has been carted to Gayá. Bokáro stands third in order of importance among the fields of the Dámodar valley which have already been examined and reported on.

Bolan.—Pass leading over the Brahuí Mountains, from the plains of Kachhi to the highlands of Sarawán and Balúchistán. It commences in lat. $29^{\circ} 30'$ N., long. $67^{\circ} 40'$ E., about 5 miles north-west of Dádar, and rises in a succession of narrow valleys between high ranges, having a north-westerly course, until it culminates in a broad plain called the Dasht-i-Bedaulat. The total length of the pass is about 60 miles; elevation of the top, about 5800 feet; average ascent, 90 feet in the mile. From the foot of the pass the halting-places are—Khundiláni, 7 miles south; Kirta, 5 miles; Bíbí-Náni, $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Ab-i-gum, 14 miles; Sar-i-Bolan, 6 miles; and from Sar-i-Bolan to the top of the pass, Dasht-i-Bedaulat, the distance is $11\frac{3}{4}$ miles. The Bolan river, a hill torrent rising beyond Sar-i-Bolan, flows through the whole length of the pass, and is frequently crossed in the first march from the foot. This torrent is, like all mountain streams, subject to sudden floods. In 1841, a British detachment was lost with its baggage in such a flood. When the river is not swollen, however, artillery can be conveyed through without any serious difficulty; and the pass is consequently of great importance from a military point of view. In 1839, a Bengal column with its artillery, consisting of 8-inch mortars, 24-pound howitzers, and 18-pounder guns, went through the Bolan in six days. At two principal points the pass is very narrow—namely, just above Khundiláni, and beyond Sar-i-Bolan; at these places it might be held by a very small force against immensely superior numbers. At the first-mentioned point, the cliffs of conglomerate on either side rise to a height of from 400 to 800 feet, and when the river is in flood, the stream completely fills the narrow gorge; at the other point, the rocks are of limestone, and the passage is so narrow that only three or four men can ride abreast. The temperature in the pass during May is very high; water is abundant and good, but firewood is scarcely pro-

curable. There is little or no cultivation owing to the stony nature of the ground, and the route being infested by the Marri and Kákár tribes of Balúchis and Patháns, who, until very recently, lived principally by plundering caravans proceeding from Khorasán to Sind, and deterred peaceably-disposed tribes from settling in the valleys. From Bîbi-Náni a mountain road leads to Khelát, *viâ* Barádi, Rodbar, Nurmah Takhi, and Kishan; distance, 110 miles. Distance from top of pass to Quetta, 25 miles; road good.

Boláram.—Military cantonment in Haidarábád (Hyderábád), the Nizám's Dominions; situated in lat. $17^{\circ} 32' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 34' E.$, on a piece of high ground 6 or 8 miles in circumference, having on its summit an open plain extending east of the cantonment. Elevation above sea, 1890 feet; distance from Haidarábád (Hyderábád), 11 miles north, and from Sikandarábád (Secunderábád), 6 miles north. The troops stationed here belong to the Haidarábád Contingent. The place is healthy. Several kinds of English vegetables and fruits thrive well. A disturbance occurred among the men of one of the Nizám's cavalry regiments stationed here in 1855, and Brigadier Colin Mackenzie was severely wounded.

Bolpur.—Village in Bîrbhúm District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; distance from Calcutta (Howrah), 99 miles. Since the opening of the railway, the village has risen rapidly in importance, and is now a considerable place of trade.

Bolúndra.—Petty State in the Máhi Kántha Agency, Bombay Presidency. The Thákur is a Rewar Rájput, descended from a younger branch of the Ranásan family; he has no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the family follows the rule of primogeniture. The first Thákur of Bolúndra obtained the estate as a maintenance in 1724 A.D. The land under cultivation is estimated at 5200 *bighas*. Population (1881) 875; revenue, £61; tribute of about £14 is paid to the Maharájá of Edar.

Bomanahilli.—Village in Belláry District, Madras Presidency, which gives its name to a great irrigational project, designed—by the construction of a reservoir and channels—to irrigate about 64,000 acres of land.

Bombadi.—Township in British Burma.—*See* BUMAWADI.

Bombay Presidency.—Bombay, the Western Presidency of British India, is divided into four revenue Divisions and twenty-four British Districts. It also includes numerous Native States, under the protection of Her Majesty's Indian Government. The territory thus composed extends from $13^{\circ} 53'$ to $28^{\circ} 45' N.$ lat., and from $66^{\circ} 40'$ to $76^{\circ} 30' E.$ long. The British Districts, including Sind, contain a total area of 124,123 square miles, and a total population (according to the Census of 1881) of 16,489,274 souls; the Native States under the Bombay

Government, excluding Baroda, cover an additional area estimated at 73,753 square miles, with a population of 6,941,249 souls; grand total area, 197,876 square miles; grand total population, 23,430,523 souls. The State of Baroda, with an estimated area of 8570 square miles, and a population of 2,185,005 souls, although in direct subordination to the Supreme Government of India, is intricately interlaced with the Bombay British Districts, and may, from a geographical point of view, be regarded as forming part of the Bombay Presidency. The Portuguese possessions of Goa, Damán, and Diu, with an aggregate area of about 3806 square kilometres, and population (1881) of 475,172 souls, are also included within its geographical limits. The capital of the Presidency, the residence of the Governor, and the head-quarters of all the administrative departments, is BOMBAY CITY, situated on an island of the same name on the shore of the Arabian Sea, in $18^{\circ} 55' 5''$ N. latitude, and $72^{\circ} 53' 55''$ E. longitude.

Boundaries.—Bombay Presidency is bounded on the north-west, north, and north-east by Balúchistán and Khelát, the British Province of the Punjab, and the Native States of Rájputána; on the east by the Native States of the Central India Agency, the Central Provinces, West Berár, and the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád; on the south by the Presidency of Madras and the State of Mysore; and on the west by the Arabian Sea.

History.—The territory included within the Bombay Presidency was in old times partitioned among many independent kingdoms. The most ancient records and memorials, such as the inscribed rock of Girnár and the caves of Ajanta, carry us back to the period before and at the commencement of the Christian era, when Buddhism was the orthodox creed throughout the peninsula of India. A survival of this early faith is represented by the Jains, who are still an influential sect in the Bombay Presidency, adhering with tenacity to their ancient traditions. The names of the most ancient Hindu kingdoms which can be localized in Western India are—MAHARASHTRA, the present Maráthá country, which is interpreted to mean either 'the great country' or 'the country of the aboriginal tribe of Mahars'; Gujaráshtta, or the modern Gujarát (GUZERAT), 'the country of the Gújars,' including the peninsula of KATHIAWAR, which was once the head-quarters of a great kingdom known as Sauráshtta, or the country of the Saurás; and lastly, Sindhu or SIND, which is emphatically the land of the Indus river. A succession of dynasties, of Rájput origin, ruled over these regions during the first ten centuries of the Christian era. The most powerful seem to have been, the dynasty which had its capital at Walabhi, in the modern Gohelwár; and the Chálúkya empire of the Deccan (Dakshin). Our knowledge of this period is chiefly derived from coins and charters on stone and copper, which have been found

in great abundance in certain localities. Continuous history begins with the invasion of the Musalmáns.

Sind was the first part of India in which the Muhammadans established a footing. But the best known event in this period of history is the invasion of Gujarát (GUZERAT) by Máhmúd of Ghazní, in 1024, when the sacred temple of Somnáth was sacked and an immense booty carried away by the invader. Henceforth the Rájput dynasty of Gujarát, whose capital was at Anhilwára or Patan, defended themselves with varying success against successive waves of invasion, until their kingdom was finally destroyed in 1297 by Alaf Khán, the general of the Túrki Emperor of Delhi, Alá-ud-dín Khiljí. For about a century, from 1297 to 1403, Gujarát was governed by deputies sent from Delhi. The last of these governors, Jáfar Khán, a Rájput renegade, threw off his allegiance to the Emperor, and founded an independent dynasty known as the Ahmadábád kingdom, from the capital built in 1413 by Ahmad 1. This dynasty attained to great power and splendour, as is testified both by the reports of European travellers and by the ruined buildings still existing at Ahmadábád and Champáner. Its annual revenue is said to have amounted to 11 millions sterling. In 1573, Gujarát was conquered by the Mughal Emperor, Akbar, who led the invading army in person, and the Province was again subjected to the control of Viceroys from Delhi. During the 17th century, Muhammadan authority was maintained despite the rising power of the Maráthás in the south of the Province. But on the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, all show of order was swept away; and in 1757 the Province of Gujarát, with its capital, Ahmadábád, was finally surrendered to the Maráthás, under the joint leadership of a deputy of the Peshwa and Damájí Gáekwár.

The DECCAN (Dakshin) was first conquered by the Muhammadans in 1294-95, although the difficult nature of the hill tracts, and dissensions among the invaders, long prevented the subjugation from being complete. In 1345, the weakness of Muhammad Tughlak, the Túrki Emperor of Delhi, encouraged Ahmad Sháh Báhmaní to rise in rebellion and to found an independent dynasty called after his own name. Its capital was first at Gúlbarga, but was subsequently removed to Bídár. About 1490, the Báhmaní kingdom fell to pieces, being partitioned among the feudatory nobles, of whom the two greatest founded the dynasties of Bijápur and Ahmadnagar. Towards the close of the 16th century, the Mughal Emperors of Delhi began to press upon these independent kingdoms from the north; and the Maráthá horsemen, under Sivaji, found their opportunity in the continual dissensions of the Musalmáns. In 1637, the Nizám Sháhí dynasty of Ahmadnagar was finally overthrown, and its territory divided between the Mughals and the Bijápur kings. In 1684, Bijápur was itself taken by the Emperor Aurangzeb,

and the Mughals and the Maráthás were left face to face. The great Sivaji was born in 1627. He rose to power by availing himself of the hill fastnesses of the Gháts, organizing the sturdy Hindu peasantry into a military confederacy, and alternately playing off the Musalmáns of Bijápur and Delhi against each other. In 1674, he ventured to declare his independence openly by being crowned at Raigarh, and six years afterwards he died. His lineal successors, the Rájás of Satára, did not inherit his genius for command; but the Maráthá traditions were maintained by subordinate officials and generals, who carved out for themselves kingdoms in all parts of the peninsula, and only lost the supreme empire of India by their defeat at the hands of the Afgháns at Pánipat. The most important members of the Maráthá confederacy who played a part in the history of Bombay, were,—the Peshwa, or over-lord, the hereditary mayor of the palace to the effete descendants of Sivaji, who may be said to have established his practical supremacy in 1749, with Poona (Púna) for his capital; and the Gáekwár of Baroda. These two chiefs collected tribute during the 18th century from the greater part of what is now the Presidency of Bombay. For the further development of the five great Maráthá houses, see *post*, article INDIA.

The first European nation who had dealings with the west coast of India was the Portuguese. In 1498, Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut; five years later, the great Albuquerque conquered Goa; and as early as 1532, the Portuguese are found in occupation of the island of Bombay. For a hundred years they maintained their monopoly of the Eastern trade. The first English ship is said to have arrived at Surat, then the chief emporium of Indian commerce, in 1608. Shortly afterwards the English merchants fought a sea-battle with the Portuguese off Surat, and, as a result of their victory, obtained a charter from the Delhi Emperor Jahángír in 1613, entitling them to establish a factory in that city. The Dutch received a similar authorization in 1618. Bombay island, comprising the present BOMBAY CITY, was ceded to the English Crown in 1661, as part of the dower of the Infanta Catharina on her marriage with Charles II. A British fleet was sent out under the Earl of Marlborough to take possession of the island. But a dispute arose with the Portuguese governor; and in 1668, the king was glad to hand over his unprofitable acquisition, at that time considered as the grave of Europeans, to the East India Company, on payment of an annual rent of £10 in gold. The total revenue was estimated at 75,000 *teraphins*, or about £6500, paid by a population of about 10,000 souls. The Company forthwith adopted measures to strengthen the fortifications, attract European settlers, and encourage manufactures and commerce. In 1687, the chief control of all the Company's possessions in India was transferred from Surat to Bombay, which was erected into an independent Presidency in 1708, on the amalgamation of the two rival

English Companies trading with India. Finally, in 1773, Bombay was placed in a position of qualified subordination to the Governor-General at Calcutta.

For more than a century the position of the English on the west coast of India was merely that of traders, who had successfully infringed the monopoly of the Portuguese and the Dutch, but were hemmed in on the landward side by the rising power of the Maráthás. The first of the Maráthá chiefs with whom our countrymen at Bombay city came into serious collision was Angria, who, from his stronghold on the island of Kolába, dominated the entire coast of the Konkan with a numerous piratical fleet. In 1756, the Governor of Bombay, in alliance with the Peshwá, despatched an expedition by sea, which captured Angria's fortified harbour of Savarndrúg; and in the same year an expedition sent from England, under the joint command of Admiral Watson and the celebrated Clive, stormed Gheriá or Vizíadrúg, and won a booty of £100,000. The power of the Maráthá pirates was thus broken, but the only territorial acquisition made by the English, was a few villages on the mainland south of Bombay. In 1774, the Bombay Government commenced the first Maráthá war, on the occasion of a disputed succession to the title of Peshwá. This war was marked by the inglorious convention of Wargáon (1779), and the repulse of General Goddard at the foot of the Bhor-Ghát. It was terminated by the treaty of Sálbai (1782); in accordance with which the English retained permanent possession of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanja and Hog Island, but gave back Bassein and all their conquests in Gujarát to the Peshwá, and made over Broach to Sindhia. The castle of Surat had been in British hands since 1759; and in 1800, the entire administration of that city was transferred to them by the Muhammadan Nawáb, whose descendants retained the empty title until 1842.

The second Maráthá war was occasioned by the treaty of Bassein in 1802, by which the Peshwá accepted the subsidiary system that formed the keynote to the Marquis of Wellesley's policy. The northern Maráthá houses combined to break down this treaty, and the military operations known as the second Maráthá war followed (1803-04). As the result of that war, a considerable tract in Gujarát, including the present Districts of Surat, Broach, and Kaira, was ceded to the British, and their political influence became predominant at the courts of Poona and Baroda. During the interval of peace which followed, measures were taken for destroying the haunts of the pirates who then infested the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch (Kachchh). In 1807, the States of Káthiáwár were taken under British protection, and in 1809 the Ráo of Cutch was induced to sign a treaty promising to co-operate in the suppression of piracy. But no sooner had the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo, been restored to his throne at Poona by a British army, than he began to plot

for the expulsion of the British from the Deccan. At last, in 1817, he suddenly attacked the Resident, Mr. Elphinstone, who retired to Kirki, where a small British force was stationed, which a few days afterwards utterly defeated the whole army of the Peshwá. After a few more engagements, the fugitive Peshwá surrendered to Sir John Malcolm. A pension of £80,000 was guaranteed to him for life, but he was deprived of all his dominions. By these measures the Bombay Presidency was augmented by the annexation of the Districts of Poona, Ahmadnagar, Násik, Sholápur, Belgáum, Kaládgi, Dhárwár, Ahmadábád, and the Konkan; thus receiving at one time the greater part of its present territory. At the same date, Holkar made over his rights in Khándesh District to the British. Satára lapsed to the paramount power in 1848, on the death of the last lineal descendant of Sivaji without a natural heir; the non-regulation tracts of the Páñch Maháls were ceded by Sindhia in 1860; and in 1861 the southern limits of the Presidency were extended by the transfer of the District of North Kánara from Madras.

The history of Sind forms a chapter apart from that of the rest of the Presidency. Shortly after the beginning of the present century, the Government of that country was assumed by four brothers of Balúchí origin, known as the Talpur Amírs. The advance of the British power, and especially the right of passage up the Indus at the time of the Afghán war, caused complications with the Amírs of Sind. Hostilities were precipitated by an attack upon the British Residency at Haidarábád, and the war that followed was signalized by the decisive victory of Míání (Meeanee). The Province was annexed to the British Empire in 1843, and the conquering general, Sir Charles Napier, was appointed its first ruler. Sind continues to be administered as a non-regulation Province. A proposal has been under consideration to detach it from Bombay, and to place it, together with the frontier Districts of the Punjab, immediately under the Supreme Government of India.

The recent history of Bombay Presidency is destitute of stirring incidents. Peace has remained unbroken, even during the troublous season of 1857, when the Bombay troops remained, as a body, loyal. The local army has done good service in many climes. In Afghánistán and Persia, in Burma and China, in Aden and Abyssinia, the Sepoys of Bombay have shown themselves willing to do their duty where-soever called. But the chief glory of British administration has lain in the development of the arts of peace. Instead of the chronic disorder of the Maráthá period, absolute security is now guaranteed to life and property. Where bands of irregular horsemen formerly collected tribute from the villagers at the spear's point, the land revenue is now realized by the operation of law, in amounts larger than could be conceived in the days of military extortion. The rail-

way, a triumph of engineering skill, climbs with ease the famous Bhór-Ghát, which in old times shut off the fertile plateau of the Deccan from the sea-coast, and once witnessed the discomfiture of a British army. A series of administrative reforms, originated by Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay from 1819 to 1827, have been continued and developed by the subsequent succession of rulers; and the benefits of civilisation have been widely distributed through the land. The cultivator is no longer a tenant-at-will of the State, liable to unlimited exactions of revenue; his position is now that of a part owner of the soil, with rights which he can transmit by sale or descent, subject only to the payment of a rent-charge fixed for a term of years. At the same time, the ambition of the upper classes has been turned into the peaceful channels of commerce. The growth of the trade in cotton is at once the cause and the measure of the advance in the average standard of comfort. Wide Districts in Gujarát and the Deccan have found their advantage in cultivating a staple which for a short season brought them a golden return, and still pays better than the ordinary grain crops. Bombay city bears witness by her splendid buildings, her docks, and her public works, to the prosperity of the land over which she rules, and from which she draws a rich tribute.

Physical Aspects.—The Presidency of Bombay presents on the map the appearance of an irregular strip of land, stretching along the eastern shore of the Arabian Sea, and extending up the lower portion of the Indus valley. The continuous coast-line is only broken towards the north by the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch, between which lies the projecting peninsula of Káthiáwár. The seaboard is generally rock-bound and difficult of access, although it contains many little estuaries forming fair-weather ports for vessels engaged in the coasting trade. Bombay and Kárwár alone have harbours sufficiently landlocked to protect shipping during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon.

Physically as well as historically, Bombay Presidency may be roughly divided into two distinct portions, the Narbadá (Nerbudda) forming the boundary line. To the north of that river lie the Province of Gujarát, with the peninsulas of Káthiáwár and Cutch, and the Province of Sind; to the south the Maráthá country, part of the Deccan, the Kárnatic, and the Konkan. The former of these tracts is for the most part a low plain of alluvial origin. In Southern Gujarát the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá form sheets of unbroken cultivation. But in Northern Gujarát the soil becomes sandy and the rainfall deficient; cultivation is largely dependent upon either artificial irrigation or the natural humidity caused by the neighbourhood of the ocean. In Sind (beyond the delta on the east), the surface is a wide expanse of desert, interrupted only by low cliffs or undulating sand-heaps. The geological formation is distinct from that of the rest of

the Indian peninsula, consisting of limestone rocks, continuous with those found in Persia and Arabia.

Bombay, south of the Narbadá, consists of a level coast strip, rising into an upland country. Mountains furrowed by deep valleys intercept the rain-clouds of the monsoons, and blossom with tropical vegetation. The geological formation is composed of nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, which naturally break into steep terraces and hog-backed ridges, and have produced by their decomposition the famous 'black cotton soil,' unsurpassed for its fertility. Perched upon these rugged eminences stand the impregnable hill forts famous in Maráthá history. The Deccan, the Kárnatic, and the Konkan are each marked by special features of their own. The Deccan, including Khándesh District, is an elevated plateau behind the Western Gháts. It is drained by several large rivers, along whose banks are tracts of great fertility; but for the rest, the air is dry and the rainfall uncertain. The Kárnatic, or country south of the Krishna (Kistna) river, is a plain of lower elevation, and contains wide expanses of black soil under continuous cultivation. The Konkan is the name of the narrow strip of land lying between the base of the Gháts and the sea. As a whole, it is a rugged and difficult country, intersected by numerous creeks, and abounding in isolated peaks and detached ranges of hills. The cultivation consists only of a few rich plots of rice-land and groves of cocoa-nut. The rainfall is excessive. The Districts of the Presidency are classified as follows, with reference to the natural divisions above described :—

Sind Districts.—Karáchi (Kurrachee), Haidarábád, Shikárpur, Thar and Párkar, and Upper Sind Frontier, forming the Sind Division.

Gujarát Districts.—Ahmadábád, Kaira, Páñch-Maháls, Broach, and Surat.

Konkan Districts.—Thána, Bombay city and island, Kolába, Ratnagiri, and Kánara.

Deccan Districts.—Khándesh, Nasik, Ahmadnagar, Poona (Púna), Sholápur, and Satára.

Western Kárnatic or South Maráthá Districts.—Belgáum, Dhárwár, and Kaládgi.

Mountains.—The following are the chief mountain ranges, which all have a general direction from north to south. In the north-west, on the right bank of the Indus, the Hála and Khirtári mountains, a continuation of the great Sulaimán range, separate British India from the domains of the Khán of Khelát. In Sind there are low ranges of sandhills, and in Cutch and Káthiáwár several isolated peaks and cliffs, which form geologically a continuation of the Arávalli mountains. Proceeding towards the south-east, an extensive mountain chain is met with, which may be regarded either as a southern spur of the Arávalli mountains, or a northern prolongation of the Western Gháts beyond

the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá. These hills separate Gujarát from the States of Central India, beginning in the neighbourhood of Mount Abú, and stretching southwards down to the right bank of the Narbadá. South of the Táptí the country becomes rugged and broken, with isolated masses of rock and projecting spurs, forming the watershed for the great rivers of the Deccan. This rugged region constitutes, strictly speaking, the northern extremity of the Western Gháts, here called the Sahyádrí Hills. That great range runs southward, parallel to the sea-coast for upwards of 500 miles, with a general elevation of about 1800 feet above the sea, though individual peaks rise to more than double that height. The western declivity is abrupt, and the low strip of land bordering the sea-shore is seldom more than 40 miles in width. The Gháts do not descend in one sheer precipice, but, as is usually the case with a trap formation, the descent is broken by a succession of terraces. The landward slope is gentle, also falling in terraces, the crest of the range being in many cases but slightly raised above the level of the central plateau of the Deccan. Apart from many minor spurs of the Western Gháts, only two ranges in the Presidency have a direction from east to west. The Sátpura range, from the neighbourhood of the fort of Asirgarh to its termination in the east of Gujarát, forms the watershed between the Táptí and Narbadá rivers, separating Khándesh District from the territories of Indore, and attaining an elevation of over 5000 feet. The Sátmála or Ajanta Hills, which divide Khándesh from the Nizám's Dominions on the south, are of less importance, being rather the northern slope of the plateau of the Deccan than a distinct hill range.

Rivers.—Bombay Presidency has no great rivers which it can call its own. The outlying Province of Sind is penetrated throughout its entire length from north to south by the INDUS, whose overflowing waters are almost the sole means of distributing fertility through that parched region. Its season of flood begins in March and continues until September; the discharge of water, calculated at 40,857 cubic feet per second in December, is said to increase tenfold in August, the average depth of the river increasing during the inundation from 9 to 24 feet, and the velocity of the current increasing from 3 to 7 miles an hour. The entire lower portion of the delta is torn and furrowed by old channels of the river, for the surface is a light sand, easily swept away and re-deposited year by year. A full account of the utility of the Indus, both for irrigation and navigation, will be found in the separate article on that river. The plains of Northern Gujarát are watered by a few small streams, the chief of which are the Sabarmati and Máhi, both rising in the Máhi Kántha Hills and flowing southward into the head of the Gulf of Cambay. The Narbadá in its westerly course to the sea from Central India, has but a short section within the limits of the Presidency. It

separates the territory of Baroda from Rewá Kántha, and, after passing the city of Broach, falls into the Gulf of Cambay by a noble estuary. For about 100 miles from the sea it is navigable at all seasons by country boats, and during the rains by vessels of 50 tons burthen. The Táptí, although a smaller river, has a greater commercial importance. It flows through the whole length of Khándesh District, and enters the sea a little above the city of Surat. Both these rivers run for the most part between high banks, and are little used for the purposes of irrigation. Passing southwards, the hill streams which rise in the Western Gháts and flow west into the Arabian Sea are very numerous, but of little importance. During the rains they become formidable torrents, but in the hot season they dwindle away and almost cease to flow. In the low lands of the Konkan their annual floods have worn deep tidal creeks, which form valuable highways for traffic. In the extreme south of the Presidency, in the District of North Kánara, these westward-flowing streams become larger; one of them, the Sharávati, plunges downwards from the mountains in the celebrated Falls of Gersappa. This majestic cataract consists of five cascades in the dry weather, which spring over the face of a rock 890 feet in height. During the rains, the five cascades unite into one magnificent avalanche of water. On the eastern side of the Gháts are the headwaters of both the Godávarí and Kistna (Krishna) rivers, the former of which rises near Násik and the latter near Mahábaleshwar. Both of these, after collecting the waters of many tributary streams, some of considerable size, leave the Presidency in a south-easterly direction, crossing the entire plain of the Deccan on their way to the Bay of Bengal.

Bays and Lakes.—The most peculiar natural feature in the Presidency is the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). Authorities have not yet decided whether it is an arm of the sea from which the waters have receded, or an inland lake whose seaward barrier has been swept away by some natural convulsion. It covers an estimated area of 8000 square miles, forming the western boundary of the Province of Gujarát; but when flooded during the rainy season, it unites the two gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, and converts the peninsula of Cutch into an island. In the dry season the soil is impregnated with salt, the surface in some places being moist and marshy, and in others strewed with gravel and shingle like a dry river-bed or sea-beach. At this time the Rann is frequented by numerous herds of antelope, the 'black buck' of sportsmen. Large tracts of marshy land are to be found in the Province of Sind, caused by changes in the course of the Indus. The Manchhar lake, on the right bank of the river, near the town of Sehván, is swelled during the annual season of inundation to an area of about 160 square miles; and a large portion of the newly-formed delta has not yet been fully reclaimed from the antagonistic forces of

the river and the sea. Along the coast of the Konkan the low-lying lands on the borders of the salt-water creeks are liable to be overflowed at high tide. Two artificial sheets of water may for their size be dignified with the title of lakes; Vehár tank and Tulsí lake, constructed to provide Bombay city with water. The former is situated about 16 miles distant from the city, amid a group of hills near the town of Thána; it has an area of about 1400 acres. The latter lies three miles north of Vehár, and about two miles south of the Kanheri caves, with an area of 331 acres. Another sheet of water, the Kharak-wásla tank, intended to supply Poona, and also to irrigate the neighbouring fields, covers an area of 3500 acres.

Minerals.—Bombay Presidency is deficient in mineral wealth, although abundantly supplied with stone adapted for building and road-making. At Teágar, or Tegur, in the District of Dhárwár, iron-ore is mined and smelted, but the scarcity of fuel prevents operations on an extensive scale. In the same District, large slate quarries are worked. There are five valuable limestone quarries near Karáchi (Kurrachee), and lime is burned in Belgaum District. The bordering mountains of Baluchistán are reported to contain large quantities of gypsum, copper, lead, antimony, and sulphur.

The Forests of Bombay belong to two separate classes—the produce of the alluvial plains in Sind, and the produce of the mountains of the Western Gháts. The State reserves in Sind are estimated to cover an area of 375,329 acres, lying along the banks of the Indus. They are divided into blocks, locally known as *belds*, which are said to have been originally formed as hunting-grounds by the Amírs, the former Muhammadan rulers of the Province. Frequent changes in the course of the river sweep away large portions of these *belds*, the average annual loss from erosion being calculated at as much as 10,000 acres; and, though fresh deposits of alluvion afford some compensation, it takes many years to replace the timber-trees thus carried off. The most valuable trees are the *sisu* or blackwood (*Dalbergia sisoo*), in small plantations; *babúl* (*Acacia arabica*), which here attains a fair size; *bhán* (*Populus euphratica*), a soft wood which grows in great abundance in Upper Sind; and tamarisk (*Tamarix indica*), which never attains large dimensions, but is extensively used as fuel by the river steamers. The *kundi* (*Prosopis spicigera*) is a very important tree in the arid tracts. The bamboo is altogether unknown in Sind, but the true date (*Phoenix dactylifera*) grows abundantly near Sakkar, in the upper part of the Province. In 1880–81, the total receipts of the Forest Department in Sind amounted to £42,784, against an expenditure of £29,916, showing a net profit of £12,868. The work of conservancy is chiefly confined to the prevention of mischief by fire, and the planting of *babúl* trees.

The hill forests of Bombay are practically limited to the Western Gháts. In Gujarát and the Kárnatic, cultivation is too widely spread ; while in the Deccan and in Khándesh District the atmosphere is too dry, and the rainfall too uncertain. In the northern extremity of the Gháts occur the tracts known as the Dángs, which yield little besides timber ; and in the extreme south, the District of North Kánara forms in its uplands one vast forest, from which half of the total forest revenue in the Presidency is derived. The woods of the Northern Konkan possess an especial value from their nearness to Bombay city. The following are the principal timber-trees in the hills :—Teak (*Tectona grandis*), blackwood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), *tiwás* (*Oujeinia dalbergiodes*), *honé* or *bibla* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *ain* or *sádara* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), ebony and *pún*, *babúl* (*Acacia arabica*), *khayer* or *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *hedu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *kalam* or *yetgal* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*), *nána* and *bonda* (*Lagerstroemia lanceolata*), *asána* (*Briedelia retusa*), ironwood or *jamba* (*Xylia dolabri-formis*). Sandal-wood is found only in the forests of Kánara. In 1880–81, the total revenue of the Forest Department in the Regulation Districts of the Bombay Presidency was £109,496 ; the total expenditure was £81,593, leaving a profit of £27,903. The sowing of teak and *babúl* plantations is conducted on an extensive scale. The total forest area of the northern and southern Divisions of the Presidency, in 1880–81, was returned at 14,300 square miles, of which 13,259 square miles are conserved.

Besides timber-trees, the forests of Bombay Presidency yield other wild produce of commercial value. The fruit-trees include mango (*Mangifera Indica*), jack (*Artocarpus integrifolia*), *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*), and *bél* (*Ægle marmelos*), the fruit of which is a specific in dysentery. *Khayer* or *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*), besides supplying timber and fire-wood, is also the source of cutch or Terra japonica ; *Terminalia chebula* yields the myrobolams of commerce. *Undi* (*Callophyllum inophyllum*), *karanja* (*Pongamia glabra*), and *mahuá* (*Bassia latifolia*), all supply oil for industrial purposes. The *mahuá* flowers are an important article of food, and a spirit is also distilled from them. The palms comprise the cocoa-nut (*Cocos nucifera*), the wild date (*Phoenix sylvestris*), the Palmyra palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*), the talipot or umbrella palm (*Corypha umbraculifera*), the *bhérali-már* (*Caryota urens*), and the betel-nut or *supárl* (*Areca catechu*). The jungle tribes collect gums from several varieties of trees, and in Sind the Government derives a small revenue from the lac found on the *babúl*.

Fauna.—Among the wild animals peculiar to the Presidency may be mentioned the maneless lion of Gujarát, which zoologists are now disposed to regard as a local variety rather than a separate species ; and the wild ass, frequenting the sandy deserts of Cutch and Upper Sind.

Leopards are common, but the tiger has retreated before the advance of cultivation, and is now only found in remote jungles. The black bear (*Ursus labiatus*) is found wherever rocky hills and forests occur; and the bison (*Gavæus gaurus*) haunts the mountain glades of Kánara. Of deer, the *sámbar* (*Rusa aristotelis*) is found in the same localities as the bison, though in greater abundance; while the *nilgái* (*Portax pictus*) and the antelope are so numerous, especially in Gujarát, as to become sometimes a pest to the cultivators. Small game, such as snipe, quail, partridges, and wild duck, can generally be obtained by the sportsman in all parts of the Presidency, even within easy reach of the suburbs of Bombay. In the year 1881, the total number of registered deaths throughout the Presidency caused by wild beasts was only 120; whereas venomous snakes killed 1209 persons.

Concerning domestic animals, it may be said that the cattle of Bombay Presidency are everywhere too numerous for the pasturage available. In breeding, no attention is paid to artificial selection, and the present poor condition of the animals is said to be becoming worse. In Gujarát a class of bullocks of more than ordinary size is met with, used especially for drawing carts along the deep sandy roads of that country. Into the south of the Presidency a yet more valuable breed of draught oxen is imported from Mysore. In certain parts buffaloes are commonly used for ploughing; and throughout Sind, the camel is the one animal for all agricultural purposes. In former days the horses of Káthiáwár and the Deccan were highly valued for military purposes, but both breeds have now much deteriorated. Horse shows are encouraged by the Government, and stallions, nearly all Arabs, with a few imported from England, are kept at the public expense. In the year 1880-81 the agricultural returns for the entire Presidency showed a total of 3,001,226 bullocks and 1,930,395 cows; 373,327 male and 1,020,944 female buffaloes; 45,376 horses, 49,377 mares, and 24,553 foals; 98,833 asses; and 2,805,664 sheep and goats. A considerable proportion of the asses, and also many camels, are found in the Districts of Sind.

Population, 1854-1881.—Careful estimates, published in 1854, gave the following figures for the area and population of the Bombay Presidency. Total area of the British Districts, including Sind, 120,065 square miles; total population, 11,109,067, or an average of 92.55 per square mile. Total area of Native States, 60,650 square miles; total population, 4,469,925. Grand total, 180,715 square miles and 15,578,992 inhabitants (1854). The Census of 1872, conducted throughout the British Districts on the night of 21st February, which extended to all the Native States with the exception of Baroda, disclosed a population of 16,285,636 in the British Districts, 6,801,440 in the Native States; total, 23,087,076 souls, on an area practically corresponding with the present territory. The latest Census of 1881,

taken on the night of the 17th February, returned a population of 16,489,274 souls for the British Districts of the Presidency, inclusive of Aden; and of 9,126,254 souls for the Native States, inclusive of Baroda; total, 25,615,528. The population of Baroda is here included for purposes of comparison with the previous Census. The State was transferred from the political control of Bombay to the Government of India in 1875. The District operations were conducted under the orders of the several Collectors. The actual enumeration was effected by the subordinate Government agency in each village, supplemented where necessary by paid labour. The total cost of the Census was £20,244, or an average of about a farthing per head of the population enumerated, *i.e.* within British Districts.

POPULATION, ETC. OF THE BRITISH DISTRICTS IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY, AND OF ADEN, ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1881.

BRITISH DISTRICTS.		Area Sq. Miles.	Towns and Villages	Houses (Occupied)	Population (1881).	Population per Sq. Mile
Northern Division.	Ahmadabad,	3,821	862	199,996	856,324	224
	Kaira,	1,609	581	191,282	804,800	500
	Panch Mahals,	1,613	675	50,970	255,479	158
	Broach,	1,453	405	72,235	326,930	225
	Surat,	1,662	782	119,892	614,198	370
	Thana,	4,243	2,101	154,403	908,548	214
	Kolaba,	1,496	975	71,930	381,649	255
Total,		15,897	6,381	860,708	4,147,928	261
Central Division.	Khandesh,	9,944	2,683	208,995	1,237,231	124
	Nasik,	5,940	1,633	122,816	781,206	131
	Ahmadnagar,	6,666	1,334	105,386	751,228	113
	Poona (Puna),	5,348	1,185	153,401	900,621	168
	Sholapur,	4,521	712	81,203	582,487	129
	Satara,	4,988	1,343	151,173	1,062,350	213
Total,		37,407	8,890	822,974	5,315,123	142
Southern Division.	Belgaum,	4,657	1,077	154,806	864,014	186
	Dharwar,	4,535	1,285	161,150	882,907	195
	Kaladgi,	5,757	1,141	114,533	638,493	111
	North Kanara,	3,911	1,109	68,832	421,840	108
	Ratnagiri,	3,922	1,297	177,844	997,090	254
Total,		22,782	5,909	677,165	3,804,344	167
Sind Division.	Karachi,	14,115	723	87,059	478,688	34
	Thar and Parkar,	12,729	73	36,412	203,344	16
	Haidarabad,	9,930	1,105	150,488	751,624	83
	Shikarpur,	10,001	1,373	137,702	852,986	85
	Upper Sind Frontier,	2,139	143	21,923	124,181	58
Total,		48,014	3,417	433,584	2,413,823	52
Aden,		12	1	5,254	34,860	2,905
Bombay City,		22	1	28,310	773,196	33,662
Total,		34	2	33,564	808,056	23,766
Grand total for Presidency,		124,134	24,599	2,827,995	16,489,274	133

The table on the preceding page shows the area, population, number of villages and houses, and the average density of population in each British District, and in Aden, in 1881.

The following table gives the statistics available for the area and population of the Native States, or aggregates of States under single Agencies, in political connection with the Bombay Government, according to the Census of 1881 :—

AREA, POPULATION, ETC. OF NATIVE STATES IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY (1881).

Native States and Tracts.	Area, Square Miles.	Towns and Villages.	Houses (Occupied).	Population (1881).	Popu- lation per Sq. Mile
Baroda, ¹	8,570	3,012	479,643	2,185,005	254'9
Kolhápúr,	2,816	1,061	129,148	800,189	284'1
Cutch (Kachhh), exclusive of the Rann,	6,500	897	102,007	512,084	78'8
Máhi Kántha States,	11,049	1,816	117,112	517,485	46'8
Rewá Kántha States,	4,792	1,104	109,730	543,452	113'4
Káthiáwár States,	20,559	4,168	479,435	2,343,899	114'0
Pálanpur States,	8,000	1,108	125,237	576,478	72'1
Cambay,	350	85	21,702	86,074	245'9
Sáwantwári,	900	226	30,444	174,433	193'8
Janjira,	325	226	14,421	76,361	234'9
Southern Maráthá Jágírs,	2,734	602	99,799	523,753	191'6
Satára Jágírs,	3,314	736	45,646	318,687	96'2
Jawhár,	535	116	8,307	48,556	90'9
Surat States,	1,220	379	27,894	151,322	123'9
Sawanúr,	70	24	2,646	14,763	210'9
Nárukot,	143	52	1,313	6,440	45'0
Akalkot,	498	105	8,493	58,040	116'5
Khándesh States (The Dange),	3,840	486	11,313	60,270	15'7
Khairpur, Sind,	6,109	...	25,720	129,153	21'1
Total,	82,324	16,203	1,831,010	9,126,254	110'9

According to these tables, the total area of territory included in the Presidency of Bombay, with Aden and Baroda, is 206,457 square miles, and the population is 25,615,528 souls. The average density of population throughout the British Districts of the Presidency is 133 per square mile, but the pressure varies greatly in different tracts. The two most densely peopled Districts in Bombay Proper are Kaira, with 500 persons to the square mile, and Surat, with 370. The two least populous in Bombay Proper are Kaládgi, with 111, and North Kánara, with 108. The average in the outlying Province of Sind is only 52 per square mile, falling as low as 16 in the sandy desert of Thar and Párkár. Classified according to sex, the population of the British Districts, exclusive of Aden, is made up of 8,497,718 males and 7,956,696 females; proportion of males, 51'6 per cent. This proportion of males is main-

¹ In 1875, the political control of the State of Baroda was transferred from Bombay to the Supreme Government of India; as it comes within the Presidency limits, it is here included.

tained fairly uniformly throughout, except in Sind, where it rises to 54·55 per cent. The low proportion of 47·4 per cent. of males in Ratnágiri District, as compared with the high rate of 60·0 per cent. in Bombay city, is to be explained by the natural influx of male labourers from the neighbouring country to find work in the city. Classified according to age, there are, under fourteen years of age, 3,371,089 boys and 3,065,956 girls; total children, 6,437,045, or 39·1 per cent. of the entire population. The proportion of girls to total females is nearly equal to that of boys to total males. The number of persons afflicted with certain specified infirmities is thus returned:—Unsound mind—males 5137, and females 2617; total, 7754: deaf and dumb—males 7151, and females 4706; total, 11,857: blind—males 20,355, females, 23,400; total, 43,755: lepers—males 7425, females 2670; total, 10,095: grand total of infirms, 73,467, or 1 in every 224 of the population. The large preponderance of males in all these classes except among the blind is noteworthy. The classification of the people according to occupation shows—267,393 persons in Government employ, or 1·62 per cent.; 5,288,006 engaged in agriculture and with animals, or 32·14 per cent.; 200,712 in trade and commerce, or 1·22 per cent.; 1,554,457 in manufactures and arts, or 9·45 per cent.; 182,950 in domestic occupations, or 1·11 per cent.; and 8,846,834, or 53·75 per cent., as belonging to the indefinite and non-productive classes, including women and children who do not work. The returns give a total of 995,464 persons as able to read and write, or under instruction; being 1 in every 16 of the population.

Ethnology and Language.—The classification according to caste and nationality adopted in the Census Report of 1872 did not throw much light upon the ethnical characteristics of the population of Bombay; but it was supplemented by two valuable papers drawn up by the late Rev. Dr. John Wilson. The Census of 1881 returns for the British Districts 16,418,704 Asiatics; 16,852 non-Asiatics; and 18,858 whose birthplace was not returned or not ascertainable. The Asiatics are sub-divided into those from beyond the frontier of India, who number 73,252, almost entirely Balúchís, Mekránís, Persians, Patháns, and Arabs, found mostly in the Province of Sind; and natives of British India, who are further sub-divided into 562,678 aborigines, 12,308,582 Hindus, 3,021,131 Musalmáns, and 453,061 'others.' The total number of Hindus, again, is made up of 664,411 Bráhmans, 196,906 Rájputs, 9,100,933 castes of good social position, and 2,346,332 other inferior castes of Hindus.

A more intelligible principle of ethnical classification arranges the people according to their languages. This would give three territorial divisions of the Presidency, having the Maráthí, the Gujaráthí, and the Sindhí as their prevailing speech; and two minor territorial sub-divisions

represented by the Kánarese and the Konkani dialects. The principal languages are Maráthí, spoken by 47·11 per cent. of the people; Gujaráthí, by 18·86 per cent. ; Kánarese, by 12·77 per cent. ; Sindhí, by 12·47 per cent. ; and Hindustání or Urdu, by 5·3 per cent.

In the north of Khándesh, Maráthí merges into Hindi; and in the Dáangs, on the west of Khándesh, the Gujaráthí element is more pronounced. Along the coast, Maráthí may be said to begin at the Dámangangá river, or with Thána District, and to run, with local variations, down to Goa; but to the east the extension is wider, and for a considerable distance into the Central Provinces, Berár and the territory of the Nizám, Maráthí is the most prevalent vernacular. In the south, away from the coast and above the Gháts, it may be said to follow the course of the Krishna, beyond which river Kánarese pervades the whole of the southern part of the Presidency.

The Gujaráthí language begins at the north of the Dámán river, and is the prevalent speech over the whole territory between that river and the confines of Rájputána. Owing to the enterprise of merchants from Gujarát, and to the use of the same language by Pársís, as well as by Hindu traders, it has become the commercial tongue of the seaports, and is found all over the Presidency. In Cutch the language, though more Gujaráthí than anything else, has a strong Sindhí element in it. The Sindhí is confined mostly to the Province from which it derives its name.

Of the languages of the Bombay Presidency, all except the Kánarese are derivatives from the Sanskrit, closely allied to each other, though distinguishable by broad lines of difference. The Kánarese is a member of the Dravidian family, which is dominant throughout Southern India. It is perhaps necessary to point out that the common derivation of these languages from the Sanskrit by no means involves as a corollary that the peoples who use them are equally descended from the Aryan stock. No decisive inference can be drawn from language to race. For example, the hill tribes of Bhíls, who are manifestly the aborigines of this part of India, have lost the recollection of their own language, and now use whatever dialect is spoken by their more immediate neighbours. The classification, however, into Maráthí, Gujaráthí, Sindhí, and Kánarese, accurately enough represents the principal nationalities of Western India, as determined by ethnical characteristics and a common history.

The Maráthás have a distinct national individuality. They are an active, energetic race, liable to religious enthusiasm, and full of military ardour. In their native mountains of the Deccan, they never submitted to a permanent Muhammadan yoke; and under the successors of Sivají, they not only asserted their independence, but laid the greater part of India under tribute. In the season of their prosperity their vices were

rather those of treachery and violence than of debauchery. In physical appearance they are of middle height, and somewhat of a copper colour, varying in shade in different Districts. The chief caste or tribe among them is the agricultural Kunbí, a name identical with the Kúrmís of Northern India. Sivají himself belonged to the fighting class of the Kunbí peasantry; and though the Kunbís are regarded by the Bráhmans as mere Súdras, they themselves claim to rank with Kshattriyas or Rájputs. Altogether the Maráthás acknowledge upwards of 200 castes, including 34 septs of Bráhmans. A comparatively high status is awarded to those castes who work in metal.

The inhabitants of Gujarát include a somewhat larger Muhammadan element, although the Hindús among them are characterized by a strong religious feeling, which has taken shape in the popular development of the Vallabháchariya sect of Vaishnavas. The three superior castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Vaisyas are numerous represented. The Gujaráthí Bráhmans are sub-divided into no fewer than 160 different septs. The Rájput clans are specially numerous in Káthiáwár, where they have given names to the local divisions of the country, and continue to be the ruling caste. The Vaisyas, whether Hindús or Jains, have attained under the common denomination of Baniyás a high degree of prosperity as shopkeepers, money-lenders, and wholesale merchants. Their trading operations extend to the coasts of Arabia and Africa. The chief tribes forming the mass of the Gujarát population are the Kulambís and Ahírs; while the aboriginal race of Kulís is rapidly rising in the scale of civilisation.

The people of the outlying Province of Sind are almost all Muhammadans by religion, as their country was the earliest field of Musalmán conquest in India. But their preservation of a dialect derived from the Sanskrit, although with a large infusion of Arabic and Persian words, indicates that they are descended from the early Hindu inhabitants of the Province, who are said to have been converted in a body during the reign of the Beni-Umayyih Khalífs. The Sind Muhammadans of foreign origin include Sayyids, Afgháns, Balúchís, Memons, and Khojahs. The Bráhmans of Sind are connected with their caste-fellows of the Punjab. Among the trading castes the Lohánís deserve mention, as conducting the greater part of the trade that passes through Khelát and Afghánistán.

In Kánara and the adjoining tracts the population shares in the general characteristics of the Kárnatic. The Bráhmans form a more homogeneous body than in the rest of the Presidency, but their general influence is perhaps less, owing to the degree to which sect is substituted for caste among all Dravidians. The Lingáyats, or worshippers of Siva under the form of the *linga*, are an especially influential body, though of comparatively late origin.

Religions.—The religious classification in the Census Report of the 16½ millions within the British Districts shows the following results :—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 12,308,582, or 74·9 per cent. of the total population ; Muhammadans, 3,021,131, or 18·36 per cent. ; Jains, 216,224, or 1·31 per cent. ; Christians, 138,317, or 0·84 per cent. ; Pársís, 72,065 ; Sikhs, 127,100 ; Jews, 7952 ; aborigines, 562,678. The proportion of Hindus is highest in the Deccan. Of the total number of Muhammadans, as many as 1,887,204 are found in Sind, where they form 78·10 of the population ; only 78,531 are returned as Shiás, and 178 as Wahábís, the rest belonging to the Sunní sect. The Muhammadans are again divided into the following sects and nationalities :—Sayyids, 108,950 ; Shaikhs, 658,739 ; Patháns, 105,034 ; Balúchís, 409,200 ; Sindhís, 1,275,038 ; other Muhammadans, 464,170. The sect of Shiás is represented chiefly by two or three classes of traders and merchants. The largest of these is the Borah, and perhaps the best known is the Khojah ; in addition to these are a few Mughals. The Shiá element is strongest at the capital, where the trading class is most numerous. The centre of the Borah class is in Surat, the residence of their chief priest. The leader of the main body of the Khoja community is the Persian prince Agá Ali Shah, whose predecessor, the well-known Agá Khán, was long a resident of Bombay, after the troubles that drove him from Persia. The Khojahs are converts from Hinduism, and acknowledge as their spiritual head the Imám of the Ismáílí sect, who are supposed to represent the Assassins (Hashisheir) of the Crusaders. They are especially numerous in the Peninsula of Káthiáwár. They have also established trading colonies along the east coast of Africa. Among the Christians are included 28,859 Protestants, 35 Armenians, 21 Greeks, and 109,470 Roman Catholics. Of the whole number of Christians, 23,596 are European, 2893 Eurasian, and 111,840 Native. The great majority of the Christians are found in Bombay city and Thána District, where the Indo-Portuguese element is strongly represented. The Pársís number 72,065, of whom two-thirds are found in Bombay city, and a large portion of the remainder in Surat District. The Sikhs number 127,100, chiefly in Sind ; and the Jews, 7952.

Houses, etc.—The total number of houses returned by the Census of 1881 was 3,605,812, of which 2,822,741 were occupied. The total number of towns and villages was 24,598, with an average of 669 persons to each. There were altogether 167 towns, each with more than 5000 inhabitants. The total population of these 167 towns in 1881 was 2,925,190, or 17·65 per cent. of the population of the Presidency. In 1880–81, there were altogether 164 municipalities, including Bombay, of which 11 were city and 150 town municipalities, while the remaining 3

were temporary municipalities, established for the purpose of providing the necessary sanitary arrangements at large fairs or gatherings of pilgrims at particular seasons. The aggregate population within municipal limits was 2,488,587, or 15·12 per cent. of the total. In that year the total gross municipal income, including Bombay city, was £597,820, the average incidence of municipal taxation being 4s. 4½d. per head. The following six towns each have a population exceeding 50,000:—BOMBAY CITY AND ISLAND, 773,196; POONA, 99,622 city, 30,129 cantonment; AHMADABAD, 127,621; SURAT, 109,844; KARACHI (KURRACHEE), 73,560; SHOLAPUR, 61,281.

Agriculture.—The wide extent and the varied configuration of the Bombay Presidency permit great variations in agriculture. The two most important food-crops are *bājra* or great millet (*Sorghum vulgare*) and *jodri* or spiked millet (*Holcus spicatus*), which are especially cultivated in the Deccan. Rice is chiefly grown in the low lands of the Konkan. Wheat is extensively cultivated in parts of Gujarāt and in Sind, and barley is grown in the same localities to a smaller extent. The aboriginal tribes mainly support themselves on inferior cereals, such as *nāchanī* (*Eleusine corocana*) and *kodra* (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*), which they plant in patches of cultivation amid the primeval jungle that clothes the hill-sides. The most important kinds of pulse are gram or chick-pea (*Cicer arietinum*), *tūr* (*Cajanus indicus*), *kūlthī* (*Dolichos biflorus*), and *mūg* (*Phaseolus mungo*). The oil-seeds are mustard, linseed (of which the fibres are not utilized as flax), castor-oil, *tīl* (*Sesamum orientale*), which yields the gingelly oil of commerce, and *kasumba* or safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius*). Among fibres, cotton holds by far the chief place, both in the Deccan and in Gujarāt; *ambāri* or Deccan hemp (*Hibiscus cannabinus*) and *san* or Konkani hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*) are also grown. The miscellaneous crops include tobacco, of which the finest quality is produced in Kaira District; sugar-cane, which requires a rich soil and a perennial water supply; potatoes, grown in the hill country near Poona; red pepper, turmeric, other spices, and indigo. It will be observed that this list leaves few staples available for export, besides cotton, oil-seeds, and wheat.

The revenue system of Bombay, based upon a cadastral survey of every cultivated field, favours the collection of agricultural statistics. Commencing from the village as the revenue unit, and rising through the *tālūks* or Sub-divisions up to the District organization, the minutest particulars affecting the administration of the land are recorded year by year. The following are the statistics of cultivation for the year 1880–81, excluding certain Districts to which the system of the revenue survey has not yet been extended:—Exclusive of Sind, the total area of cultivable lands liable to Government assessment was returned at 24,839,908 acres; total area actually under cultivation.

21,869,643, of which 20,418,867 acres are classified as dry-crop lands, and 1,041,648 as rice lands. In Sind, the cultivated land during the *kharif* season was returned at 1,956,787 acres, the unoccupied at 704,688 acres, the fallow at 650,601 acres; during the *rabi* season the figures were 293,399 acres under cultivation, 136,883 acres unoccupied, and 100,537 acres lying fallow. The chief crops in 1880-81 were thus distributed over an aggregate area of 20,426,966 acres: barley, 28,875; maize, 81,761; *jodrī*, 6,047,829; *bājra*, 3,805,474; other cereals, 2,259,158; rice, 1,757,161; wheat, 1,579,961; pulses, 1,631,944; oil-seeds, 1,086,410; cotton, 1,826,407; tobacco, 55,156; sugar-cane, 51,329; garden produce, 86,427; condiments, spices, and drugs, 116,099; dyes, 12,975; the sums advanced by Government during the season to agriculturists for purchase of seed and stock amounted to £3946, including a sum of £421 for permanent improvements. At the close of the year 1881, there were 78 Government stallions for the improvement of horse-breeding and stock, at various places in the Presidency. The number of mares covered in that year was 2185. The stallions were in greatest request at Sirūr, Poona (Púna), Ahmadnagar, and Jacobábád, and in Khándesh District and Káthiáwár.

Cotton.—The cultivation of the great export staple of cotton is sufficiently important to deserve special mention. Even before the close of the last century, India exported a considerable amount of raw cotton to England, but this was mainly grown in Bundelkhand, collected at Gházipur, and shipped from Calcutta. The trade was fostered by the East India Company; but it does not appear to have been of a profitable nature, and the totals despatched fluctuated greatly year by year. Bombay appears not to have entered into the business until about 1825. For many years afterwards the shipments of cotton were liable to great vicissitudes, depending chiefly upon the yield of the American crop. But the Indian cultivators found their opportunity when the war between the North and South in the United States cut off the supplies of the English manufacturer, and caused the 'cotton famine' among the mill operatives in Lancashire. During the five years ending with 1853-54, the export of cotton from Bombay had averaged under 180 million lbs., valued at 2½ millions sterling; in the five years ending 1868-69, the average quantity had risen to 424 million lbs., and the average value to nearly 20 millions sterling. In the single year 1864-65, the value was as high as £30,370,482. This period of extraordinary prosperity led to much wild speculation. The collapse came in 1865, on the termination of the American war. The bubble schemes and financial companies in Bombay city burst one after the other, and brought down in the general ruin the *quasi*-official Bank of Bombay. Meanwhile, the cultivators had turned the excessive profits of a few years, into the solid form of gold

and silver ornaments. Prices have fallen very heavily, but the quantity of cotton grown is maintained. In 1875-76, the amount exported was 3,722,436 cwts., valued at £10,209,389, or nearly as large a quantity as when speculation was at its height, though the value is diminished to one-third. In 1880-81, the extent of land under cotton in the whole Presidency, including Sind and the Native States, was returned at 4,193,074 acres. Of this area, 3,450,503 acres were planted with indigenous, and 742,571 with exotic cotton. The quantity exported in the same year from the Presidency was returned at 3,220,308 cwts., valued at £9,779,049 from Bombay, and 104,605 cwts., valued at £285,776, from Sind. In the same year the total number of steam gins was 2430. Much has been done of late years to improve the quality of the cotton grown in the Presidency. American varieties have been introduced successfully into Dhárwár and other parts of the South Maráthá country. In Khándesh the indigenous plant, from which one of the lowest classes in the Bombay market took its name, has now been almost superseded by the Hinganghát variety from the Central Provinces, under the trade name Amráoti ('Oomrawutty'). Agricultural experiments in cotton as well as in other crops are made at three State Model Farms, at Hála in Sind, in Khándesh, and in Dhárwár. Though these experiments have not resulted in pecuniary profit, much valuable information has been gained. .

Irrigation.—Except in Sind, where the annual rainfall is insignificant, and the crops are entirely dependent upon artificial supplies of water drawn from the Indus by a network of canals, irrigation is not generally practised in the Bombay Presidency. In bad seasons every advantage is taken of the water that is available for use in river-beds, tanks, or wells, but there are no irrigation works constructed on a scale sufficiently large to give permanent benefit to wide areas of country. Within the last few years some steps have been taken in this direction, but the broken character of the greater part of the country does not readily lend itself to such schemes. In the year 1880-81, out of a total area of 24,839,908 acres of cultivable land, excluding Sind, the area under irrigation was thus classified: irrigated garden lands, 409,127 acres; rice lands irrigated from tanks and watercourses, 147,551 acres; total irrigated, 556,678 acres. The irrigation system of Sind will be described in the separate article on that Province. The most important works which have been already carried out, and which are in progress, in Bombay Proper are the following:—The Kistna (Krishna) Canal in Satára District, formed by throwing a masonry dam across the bed of the river; the Háthmati Canal in Ahmadábád District; the improvement of the Khári river irrigation; the works for the water supply of the Government saltworks at Khárágóra near the Rann of Cutch; works for the purpose of increasing the efficiency of the Palkher Canal

in Násik District; the works at the Waghar tank in the same District; the works at the Bhadalvári tank in Poona District; the works at the Ashti tank in Sholápur District; the Sholápur municipal waterworks; the works at the Nira and Mhasmad tanks in Satára District; a canal in Belgáum District; the Ekruk Tank in Sholápur, formed by an earthen dam across the entire valley of the Adela; and the waterworks at Kharakwásla, destined to irrigate the surrounding fields as well as to supply water to the city of Poona. The severe famine of 1877 has drawn increased attention to this important subject, and plans have been prepared for the construction of irrigation works in all parts of the Presidency, to be commenced as funds permit. In 1880-81, the total expenditure on irrigation works through the Public Works Department was £232,830. Of this sum, £211,869 was contributed from Imperial revenue, £19,613 from Native States, private individuals, and municipalities, and £1349 from local funds. The direct revenue from irrigation during the same period was £26,726. The 24 irrigation works constructed by the Public Works Department in Gujarát and the Deccan command an area of 224,000 acres of irrigable land, though the area actually irrigated in 1880-81 was only 34,444 acres.

The land revenue system of Bombay is based upon the principle of measuring every field separately, and assessing it at a sum fixed for a term of thirty years, the amount of assessment being determined by the quality of the soil and the crop. This plan was first introduced in 1836, in the case of the Indápur *táluk* of Poona District, and has since been gradually extended over the greater part of the Presidency. It differs from the method adopted in the North-Western Provinces, in that the assessment is made direct with the individual cultivators, and not with the village community; and it differs from the *rayatwári* system of Madras, by not requiring a modification of the assessment every year. Prior to the introduction of the revenue survey, general anarchy prevailed, both with regard to the rights possessed by different parties in the soil, and also with regard to the proportion of the produce payable to Government. The immediate result of the change was to improve the condition of the cultivator. He has received a right of occupancy in his holding, on the condition of payment of the Government revenue. This right of occupancy, commonly known as 'the survey tenure,' has been described as 'a transferable and heritable property continuable without question at the expiration of a settlement lease, on the occupier's consenting to the revised rate.' The average rates of assessment are—Rs. 0. 12. 7 or 1s. 7d. per acre on dry crops; Rs. 3. 11. 4 or 7s. 5d. on garden lands; and Rs. 3. 9. 5 or 7s. 2d. on rice land. The maximum on dry-crop lands is Rs. 2. 3. 4 or 4s. 5d. per acre in the rich black country of Gujarát, and the minimum is Rs. 0. 6. 6

or 9½d. in the barren hill-tracts of the Konkan. Within the last few years the terms of assessment in the Districts earliest settled have begun to fall in, and consequently a revision of the assessment has become necessary; and this is now being carried on in the Districts of Násik, Ahmadnagar, Poona, Sholápur, Belgáum, Dhárwar, and Kaládgí.

In the course of the inquiries it has been discovered that the cultivator has not reaped all the advantages that had been hoped from the simplicity of the system. His chronic condition of indebtedness to the village money-lender has produced consequences not dissimilar to those caused by the *samindári* system in Bengal. No intermediate rights in the soil have been suffered to grow up between the cultivator and the State; but the personal obligations under which the cultivator has placed himself towards his money-lender enable the latter to appropriate to himself the unearned increment as completely as if he were a landlord. The system, although framed with the best intentions, put the machinery of our Courts at the disposal of the astute creditors as against an ignorant peasantry. During some years, the cultivators were sold off the land without mercy; agrarian outrages took place; and the Legislature was at length compelled to interfere in favour of the tillers of the soil. The Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Acts have placed them under a modified procedure for the recovery of debts; protected their holdings from sale; and endeavoured to work out a plan which would satisfy as far as possible the dues of the creditor from the yearly produce of the debtor's fields without altogether driving the debtor off the land. The rigidity of our revenue system, and its want of elasticity in the Deccan Districts, which are peculiarly exposed to the vicissitudes of the rainfall, are also said to bear heavily on the peasantry. The increase of revenue resulting from the resettlement operations in the Districts named above, up to 1881-82, is returned at £1,023,503.

Side by side with the survey tenure, there exist various forms of landholding which have come down from the days of native rule, though none of them are now prevalent to a wide extent. Among these the *tálukdári*, *wánta*, *narwádári* and *mdleki* tenures in Gujarát deserve mention. In the Districts of the Southern Konkan, the survey has not yet been introduced. The land is there held by a class of petty landlords called *khóts*, whose rights as against the Government have not yet been finally determined. The non-regulation Province of Sind enjoys a modified land system of its own. The greater part of the land is cultivated by peasant proprietors. The rates of assessment depend to a large extent on a steady but not excessive overflow from the Indus, and payment in cash has been substituted for the old practice of an actual division of the crop.

The Famine of 1876-77 was felt throughout the Deccan and South Maráthá country, though less severely than in the adjoining Districts

of Madras (*q.v.*) and Mysore. The same set of meteorological causes operated over all Southern India. The total rainfall of the year was everywhere deficient, but the disastrous effect upon agriculture was determined mainly by local variations. The harvest of 1875 had also been below the average, so that the pressure of high prices fell upon a population already impoverished. In 1876 the summer rains of the south-west monsoon, which commence in June, were scanty. But the effects of this monsoon on cultivation are chiefly confined to the Konkan and Malabár coast, where the normal rainfall is so excessive that little injury was wrought by the deficiency. The autumn rains of the north-east monsoon, upon which the table-land behind the Gháts is mainly dependent, failed altogether. At Poona the heavy rain, which usually falls continuously during September and October, was represented by only two moderately wet days. The result was a general failure in the winter crops, over an area in this Presidency estimated at 39,000 square miles, with a population of nearly six million souls. Serious distress began in November 1876, and lasted for about twelve months. In April 1877, the number of people employed by Government on relief works was 287,000. In July of the same year, the persons in the receipt of gratuitous relief numbered 160,000. The District most affected was Kaládgi, bordering on the Nizám's dominions, where the relieved numbered 14 per cent. of the total population. But these vague figures convey but an inadequate idea of the general impoverishment produced by this disastrous year. The statistics of the Bombay mint show in a decisive manner how even the well-to-do portion of the population suffered. In the two years 1877 and 1878, the total value of silver ornaments and disused coin brought into the mint as bullion exceeded $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, against only £4000 in the previous year. No interference with private trade was attempted. The Government endeavoured to provide work for the starving population. But notwithstanding the wages offered, and the supplies of food brought into the Districts, the calamity proved beyond the power of administrative control, and hundreds of thousands died of starvation. The deaths in the two famine years 1877 and 1878 in the Bombay Presidency, excluding Sind, are estimated to have been 800,000 in excess of the usual number. The opportunity was taken to push on schemes of irrigation and other remunerative public works, which had long previously been matured on paper.

Manufactures.—The two great manufactures carried on in this Presidency are cotton goods and salt; the latter is to a large extent manufactured departmentally. Indigo is made to some extent at Khairpur in Sind. Apart from the new industry of cotton spinning and weaving by means of steam machinery, the manufacture of coarse cotton cloth *sáris* and *págrís* in hand-looms is still conducted in almost every village through-

out Bombay. A curious distinction in this respect separates the Gujaráthí and Maráthí speaking races. The former prefer their cotton goods printed, while the latter wear only stuffs that have been dyed in the thread. The decoration generally consists of a simple border, but the more expensive articles are frequently finished off with silk, or with gold and silver lace. Sind weavers are reckoned the most skilful. The best *sáris* or women's robes are printed at Ahmadábád and Surat. Even to the present day the majority of the population wear home-spun and home-woven goods; but within the past few years, the twists and yarns produced in the Bombay mills have found great favour with native weavers. A peculiar mode of ornamenting cotton and silk goods, known as *chindári*, is common throughout the Presidency. The cloth, after being once dyed, is marked with the desired pattern, the outline of which is picked and twisted so as to form a raised surface; the cloth is then again put into the vat to be dyed a fresh colour, and when taken out the raised threads are removed, leaving the pattern of the original colour underneath. Carpets, rugs, horse-cloth, towels, napkins, etc., are manufactured in the jails throughout the Presidency, especially in Sind. Ahmadnagar is celebrated for its carpets, and Khándesh and Dhárwár for drugget rugs and bullock-cloths. The raw material employed in manufactures of silk is imported from China. The chief seats of silk-weaving are Ahmadábád, Surat, Poona, Násik, and Yeola. The two first of these places produce *kinkhábs*, or brocades of silk and gold and silver thread, which are famous throughout India; the three last have a reputation for silk or cotton *sáris*, finished off with rich borders of gold, silver, or silk lace, and beautifully filled in with designs executed on the looms. The silk *dhotars* and *pitámbar*s of Yeola are in great request. The preparation of gold and silver thread is performed with great skill. It is said that one rupee's worth of silver can be drawn out into a thread 800 yards in length. The metallic thread is either twisted with silk before being used in the looms, or sometimes beaten out flat to form a warp by itself. The embroidery of various articles with gold and silver thread for the use of the Muhammadan and Pársi communities, or for the European market, is carried on at Haidarábád in Sind, in Káthiáwár, and at Baroda, Surat, and Bombay. The manufacture of coarse paper from raw vegetable fibres is conducted in several of the large towns, especially at Ahmadábád and Baroda; also at smaller local centres, such as Junar in Poona District. The manufacture of coir rope is an industry which thrives in the Konkan and Kánara, and coarse *kamblís* or blankets are made in Khándesh, Násik, Sholápur, and Ratnagiri. Toys in ivory and clay are made in Surat and Poona, and the carpets of Sind enjoy a wide reputation. Among articles of leather work may be mentioned the *debaro*, or large vessel used for holding oil, etc., which is formed by stretching a

fresh skin round an inner mould of clay. Saddle covers and cloths, shoes, leggings, blankets, felts, and accoutrements are made in Sind, and the ancient manufacture of shields at Ahmadábád has not yet entirely died out. The common pottery of the Presidency is of a very rude description, but Sind produces some of the best potters' ware of all India. The art is thought to have been introduced by the Amírs, or former Muhammadan rulers, whose mosques and tombs attest the degree of excellence attained. The Bombay School of Art is now successfully promoting the revival of this industry. Special qualities of pottery are made at Patan in the State of Baroda, and at Ahmadábád. Násik and Poona are celebrated for their brass-ware. Bombay city and Ahmadábád also turn out large quantities of brass utensils, which are hammered by native workmen out of sheets imported from Europe. In the department of cutlery, spear-heads are made at Ahmadnagar, and hunting-knives, swords, and chain armour in Cutch, Káthiáwár, and Baroda. Ironwork, besides cutlery, is still hammered with great skill at Ahmadábád, where the beautiful gates of the tomb of Sháh Alam afford an example of an extinct industry in perforated brasswork. Fine art is represented by a large number of ornamented articles manufactured in all parts of the Presidency. The personal decorations of the women of Gujarát are distinguished by solidity, and those of Maráthí women by intricacy of design. The Muhammadans and Pársís also have each styles of ornament peculiar to themselves. The goldsmiths' work of Sind is very beautiful. The embossed gold and silver work of the Cutch workmen is much sought after, and they have established a colony at Ahmadábád and Bombay. Ahmadábád and Surat are also celebrated for wood-carving. Most of the houses are ornamented in this way, and furniture and boxes are carved in ebony and blackwood. The best sandal-wood carving comes from Kúmp tá (Coompta) in Kánara. Sculpture has been practised by the stonecutters of Cutch and Káthiáwár from time immemorial. The more elaborate portions of the stonework on the recently erected public buildings in Bombay were executed by these workmen, trained in the School of Art and the Public Works Department.

Cotton Mills.—Within the last twenty years the spinning and weaving of cotton by steam machinery, and under European supervision, has become an important industry. The local cotton mills have certain natural advantages. Both the raw material and the market for the manufactured produce lie at their feet. The first mill was started in Bombay in 1857; and according to the latest returns, there are now (1881) 36 mills at work in Bombay city and its suburbs, and 13 in other parts of the Presidency, not including those in contemplation or in course of erection. These 49 mills employ a total of 1,237,536 spindles and 13,046 looms; and probably consume about 157,000 *khandís*

(candies) of 784 lbs. each of cotton. They are almost without exception the property of joint-stock companies. The hours of work for the operatives are from six in the morning to six at night, with an hour allowed in the middle of the day for meals and smoking. A Factory Act regulates the hours of labour for children. The average number of hands employed is 37,567; and the average wages per month are, for a girl, 10s.; a woman, 16s.; a man, £1, 12s. The natives are gradually learning to qualify themselves for the posts requiring superior skill, which are at present mostly occupied by operatives brought from England. Besides supplying the local demand, these cotton mills are beginning to find a market in foreign countries, especially for their twist and yarn, which meets with much favour. During the year 1880-81, the exports of Indian twist were 26,442,671 lbs., valued at £1,260,296, of which by far the larger portion was sent to China. The value of the exported piece-goods manufactured at the mills of the Presidency was returned in the same year at £405,370.

Roads and Railways.—The roads throughout the Presidency are chiefly constructed and maintained out of local funds by the agency of the District officers. A two-thirds share of the 1 *anna* cess levied on every rupee of land revenue is set apart for this purpose, and augmented by contributions from tolls, ferries, etc. In 1880-81, the receipts of the District Road Fund amounted to £229,560, and the expenditure to £224,782. Certain trunk roads, and the construction of important buildings and bridges, are under the charge of the Public Works Department, which in the same year expended £298,219, of which £80,014 was appropriated to original works, and £165,287 to repairs. The total expenditure on Public Works (including establishment) in the Bombay Presidency in the year 1880-81, was £640,186 in the Roads and Buildings branch; the outlay on military works was £144,712. Works for the protection against the sea of the harbour defences at Manora Point at Karáchi are in progress, as well as the improvement of the fortifications of Bombay harbour. At the close of the year 1880-81, there were 3150½ miles of railway open under the Government of Bombay. This does not include any of the railways in Sind, which are now under the administration of the Government of India. There were 100 miles under construction at the end of 1880-81, and 227 under survey. The two chief railways under the control of the Bombay Government are the Great Indian Peninsula, with 1287 miles open in 1881; and the Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian, with 421 miles. Both these are guaranteed railways of the standard gauge of 5 feet 6 inches; and both have their terminus in Bombay Island. The former, after running a few miles east of Thána, bifurcates into two branches at Kalyan. One of these branches runs north-east *via* the Thal Ghát

[Sentence continued on p. 64.]

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY FOR 1880-81—continued.

Imports.	Quantity.	Value.	Exports.	Quantity.	Value.
Metals, lead,	cwt.	£ 10,350	Hides and skins,	£ 443,122
" steel,	"	46,517	Jewellery, etc.,	21,246
" tin,	"	6,411	Jute, raw,	341
" zinc,	"	44,392	" manufactured,	10,378
" other sorts,	"	101,731	Lac, shell,	1,892
Oils,	gals.	4,060,209	Oils,	73,005
Paints and colours,	"	219,919	Opium,	gals.	5,903,113
Paper and pasteboard,	"	86,214	Provisions,	118,103
Provisions,	"	207,581	Saltpetre,	cwt.	399
Railway plant,	"	512,685	Seeds,	"	2,325,777
Salt,	tons	850,954	Silk, raw,	lbs.	5,466
Shells,	"	41	" manufactured,	37,397
Silk, raw,	lbs.	26,603	Spices,	128,793
" manufactured,	"	876,164	Stone and marble,	cwt.	2,050
Spices,	"	583,892	Sugar,	12,505
Sugar,	cwt.	167,304	Tea,	"	26,668
Tea,	lbs.	1,102	Tobacco and cigars,	67,368
Tobacco and cigars,	"	242,927	Wax,	cwt.	16,116
Toys and games,	"	24,416	Wood,	35,680
Umbrellas,	No.	38,597	Wool, raw,	lbs.	1,013,251
Wood and timber,	"	64,427	" manufactured,	104,152
Wool, raw,	lbs.	17,847	Miscellaneous,	296,896
" other sorts,	yds.	72,343		..	
All other articles,	"	387,056	Total,	£ 25,275,176
Treasure { Gold,	"	27,086	Treasure and Government Stores,	
" Silver,	"	2,188,870		..	
	"	2,544,088	Gold,	7,137
	"	4,176,044	Silver,	896,911
Government stores,	"	£ 27,140,166	Government stores and treasure,	41,892
	"	1,555,684		..	
Grand total,	£ 28,695,850	Grand total,	£ 28,592,035

Sentence continued from p. 61.]

through Násik and Khándesh Districts, and after again bifurcating at Bhusáwal, passes into Berár and the Central Provinces, where it joins the East Indian extension at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The other original branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Kalyan Junction turns south-east, and, after climbing into the Deccan by the Bhor Ghát below Poona (Púna), finally joins the Madras Railway. In 1880, the net earnings of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway within the Presidency amounted to £1,110,555; the gross expenditure amounted to £1,384,770. Up to the same year the cost of construction amounted to £21,311,591; cost of rolling stock, £3,686,128; stores, £591,891. The Dhond and Manmád State Railway, 145 miles in length, connects the northern and southern branches of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway by a chord line above the Gháts at Dhond and Manmád stations from which it takes its name. This chord line was constructed as a State line, but the Great Indian Peninsula Railway now works it. It admits of traffic between Madras and Northern India, without compelling passengers and goods to descend and re-ascend the Bombay Gháts. The Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian Railway runs due north along the sea-coast past the cities of Surat, Broach, and Baroda, and terminates at Pálanpur, with a westerly branch from Ahmadábád to Viramgám. This line lies wholly within the limits of the Bombay Presidency. Up to 1881, the total capital expended upon it has been £8,473,162; the gross receipts were for the year £824,437, and the expenses £350,972, leaving as net earnings £473,465. The Pátri State Railway, 22 miles, leaves this line at Viramgám terminus in a north-westerly direction; while the Káthiáwár and Bháunagar-Gondal line, 194 miles, leaves the same terminus in a direction first south for a distance of 100 miles, and then west through the peninsula of Káthiáwár, to the terminus at Dhorájl. The Rájputána State Railway, with a total length of 717 miles from Ahmadábád to Ajmere, Delhi and Agra, northwards, has been made over to the charge of the Bombay Government. The total length of the State Railway lines under the Government of Bombay at the end of 1881, was 1188 miles. The Rájputána-Málwá Railway, 389 miles, from Khandwa station on the north-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, to Neemuch, Nasrábád and Ajmere, has since been transferred to the control of the Bombay Government. Other small lines of narrow gauge, aggregating a length of about 60 miles, and belonging to the Gáekwár of Baroda, branch off from the main line of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway. There are no navigable canals in the Presidency, but the main channel of the Indus is kept open by the State at an annual cost of about £6000.

Commerce and Trade.—The table on pages 62 and 63 gives the

principal items of the import and export trade of the Bombay Presidency, including Sind, for the year 1880-81.

The total sea-borne foreign trade of Bombay Presidency, including both imports and exports, reached a total value of £57,287,885. These figures are exclusive of the coasting trade, which in 1880-81 amounted to a total value of £15,450,126 imports, and £14,723,700 exports; total, £30,173,826; grand total, £87,461,711. The foreign trade, exclusive of treasure and Government stores, was thus distributed among the chief countries:—United Kingdom—imports £18,041,382, exports £7,860,205; China—imports £2,698,896, exports £7,483,278; Mauritius—imports £1,239,531, exports £99,168; Arabia—imports £885,218, exports £715,881; Persia—imports £528,425, exports £1,004,681; Italy—imports £1,036,027, exports £2,031,869; France—imports £416,844, exports £3,579,113; United States—imports £230,639, exports £8609; Ceylon—imports £79,133, exports £88,331; Austria—imports £366,820, exports £1,476,689; Straits Settlements—imports £182,701, exports £271,653; other countries—imports £1,434,518, exports £3,026,677. The number of vessels that entered the ports of Bombay Presidency with cargoes from foreign countries during the year 1880-81 was 1500, with a tonnage of 1,070,358 tons, of which 647 vessels (773,117 tons) were steam vessels. In addition, 45 vessels, with a tonnage of 38,049 tons, entered in ballast. The coasting trade was carried on by 84,812 vessels, with a tonnage of 2,026,645 tons, of which 83,049 vessels (1,296,173 tons) were native craft. Excluding the two great harbours of Bombay and Karáchl, the remaining ports in the Presidency are divided into two groups—the northern, comprising 22 ports between Gogo and the Bassein creek; and the southern, which includes 51 ports between Bassein and Bhatkál, in North Kánara. About four-fifths of the coasting trade is conducted by the southern group.

Administration.—The Government of the Presidency of Bombay is administered by a Governor and his Council. This body is the chief executive and legislative authority of the Presidency, and consists of the Governor as President, the Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Presidency, and two members of the Covenanted Civil Service. The various departments of the administration are portioned out among the several members of Council, and for each department there is a separate secretariat staff. There is also a Legislative Council, composed of the Governor and his Executive Council above described, together with four to eight other members nominated by the Governor. Not less than a certain proportion of these additional Legislative members of the Council must be non-officials, with a view to the representation of the European and native communities. For administrative purposes

the Presidency is divided into four Divisions, called the Northern (7 Districts), Central (7 Districts, including Bombay city and island), and Southern (5 Districts), in Bombay Proper, and the Sind Division of 5 Districts ; these Divisions embrace (including Bombay city and island) 24 Districts, each Division being placed under the control and superintendence of a Commissioner. The District is the actual unit of administration for both fiscal and judicial purposes. The Regulation Districts of Bombay number 17, each under the control of a Magistrate-Collector, who must be a member of the Covenanted Civil Service. The Province of Sind, and the Páñch-Maháls in Gujarát, form 7 non-regulation Districts, under officers who may be either military, covenanted or uncovenanted servants. The city of Bombay is regarded for many purposes as forming a District by itself. Each District is on the average divided into 10 *táluks*, or Sub-divisions, each of which again contains about 100 Government villages, or villages of which the revenue has not been alienated by the State. Every village is, for fiscal and police, as well as social purposes, complete by itself. It has its regular complement of officials, who are usually hereditary, and are remunerated by grants of land held revenue free. The more important of these officials are the *pátel* or head-man ; the *taláti* or *kulkarni*, who is the clerk and accountant ; the *mhádr*, who is a kind of beadle ; and the watchman. Over each *táluk* or Sub-division is set a Government officer termed a *mámlatdár* ; and on an average about 3 *táluks* are placed in charge of an Assistant or Deputy Collector. General supervision is exercised by the Commissioners, as above stated, who are 3 for the Regulation Districts and 1 for Sind. The supreme administration of justice in the Regulation Districts is entrusted to the High Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and seven Puisne Judges. This Court exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases. In Sind, the same functions are discharged by the Judicial Commissioner. The superior administration of both civil and criminal justice is vested in officials styled District and Assistant District Judges. Original civil suits (if not against the Government) are decided as a rule by two classes of Subordinate Judges, and by the Small Cause Courts ; and the greater part of the original criminal work is disposed of by the executive District officers, who in addition to their revenue duties are entrusted with magisterial powers. The remaining principal departments of Government are the police, public works, forests, education, jails, registration and medical departments, each of which possesses an organization extending throughout all the different Districts of the Presidency.

The Political relations between the Government and the Native States in connection with the Bombay Presidency are maintained by the presence of an Agent or representative at the principal Native Courts.

The position and duty of the Agent varies very considerably in the different States, being governed by the terms of the original treaties, or by recent *sanads* or patents. In some instances, as in Cutch, his power is confined to the giving of advice, and to the exercise of a general surveillance. In other cases the Agent is invested with an actual share in the administration; while States whose rulers are minors—and the number of these is always large—are directly managed by Government officers. The characteristic feature of the Bombay Native States is the excessive number of petty principalities, such as those of the Rájput and Bhíl chieftains. The peninsula of Káthiáwár alone contains no less than 187 separate States. The recognition of these innumerable jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. The rule of succession by primogeniture applies only to the larger principalities, and consequently the minor States are continually suffering disintegration.

The Bombay army in 1881 consisted of a strength of 13,082 Europeans and 26,730 natives; total, 39,812 fighting men. This force was made up of 1 regiment of European and 9 regiments of native cavalry; 47 European and 541 native sappers; 23 batteries of European artillery with 96 guns, and 2 of native artillery with 12 guns (the heavy ordnance in Bombay island, Karáchi and Aden not included); 11 regiments of European and 30 of native infantry. The military Divisions and Districts of the Presidency are as follow: Poona (Púna) Division, with 9 stations, head-quarters Poona; Northern Division, with 11 stations, head-quarters Ahmadábád; Aden Brigade, head-quarters Aden; Belgáum District, with 4 stations, head-quarters Belgáum; Bombay District, with 5 stations, head-quarters Bombay city; and Sind District, head-quarters Karáchi; and there are besides several cantonment stations, including Mau (Mhow), Nímach (Neemuch), Nasrábád (Nusseerábád), and Dísa (Deesa), in Central India, which all lie beyond the geographical limits of the Presidency. The military convalescent stations are Purandhar on the hills, and Kolába and Ghizri Bandar on the sea-coast. In the year 1880-81, the total military expenditure amounted to £5,428,599, of which £540,683 belonged to the European, and £719,844 to the native army; £1,760,629 was devoted to effective services, £136,122 to non-effective services, including pensions, and the remainder, £2,271,321, to the war in Afghánistán.

The Bombay Marine in 1881 consisted of ten steam vessels, two hulks in ordinary, and two ironclad turret monitors (the *Abyssinia* and the *Magdala*) for the defence of Bombay harbour. The total establishment consisted of about 700 officers and men. Of the ten steam vessels mentioned above, two were stationed at Aden, and two in the

Persian Gulf: The total receipts for 1880-81 of the shipping office amounted to £3258, against an expenditure of £1408. The total expenditure during the year 1880-81 of the Bombay Port Trust was £270,394, including a sum of £121,534 for interest to be paid in 1881-82, against which must be set off receipts amounting to £276,682.

The Police consists of several distinct forces,—the Regular District Police, the Bombay City Police, the Railway Police, and the Village Watch. The last-mentioned body is maintained only in certain parts of the country, at the expense of the villagers, and is not directly under the control of Government. The Bombay City Police will be treated of in the separate article on Bombay City. The following figures, therefore, only apply to the Regular and the Railway Police. In the year 1880-81, these two forces consisted of a strength of 3280 officers and 16,353 men—total, 19,633; being 1 man to every 6·4 square miles as compared with the area of the Presidency, or 1 to every 810 of the population. The proportion of police to area is largest in the Páñch Maháls District of Gujarát (Guzerát), where it is 1 to 2·07 square miles, and least in the Thar and Párkar District of Sind, where it is 1 to 26·0 square miles. The total cost was £324,967, of which £297,785 was met from Provincial revenues, and £27,182 was payable from other sources than Provincial revenue, showing an average cost of £2, 1 2s. 4d. per square mile of area, and 4½d. per head of population. Of the total force, 45 per cent. were armed with firearms, and 34 per cent. with swords, the rest having only batons. In 1880-81, the total number of cases of cognizable crime reported was 62,487; 53,428 persons were arrested and 48,923 put on their trial, of whom 42 per cent. were convicted. The total number of non-cognizable cases was 2089; 3368 persons were arrested or summoned, of whom 1547 were convicted. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences.

Jails.—In 1881, there were altogether 27 jails in Bombay Presidency, including the common jail and the house of correction in Bombay city, the central jail at Yerauda near Poona (Púna), and the jail at Aden; and 78 subordinate lock-ups. In that year the daily average prison population was 11,236, of whom 536 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 1464 of the population, and 1 woman in jail to every 14,845 of the female population. The number of deaths was 493, or 4·4 per cent. of the average strength. The gross total expenditure, exclusive of the sum expended on subordinate jails, was £89,702, or £6, 19s. 3½d. per head. The expenditure on subordinate jails was £2596. Jail manufactures, including garden work and extramural labour, yielded a net profit of £20,337.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY FOR 1880-81.

RECEIPTS		EXPENDITURE	
<i>Imperial.</i>		<i>Imperial.</i>	
Land Revenue,	3,090,029	Interest on Service Funds,	84,972
Tribute and Contributions,	131,925	Refunds and Drawbacks,	67,556
Forests,	152,280	Forests,	111,878
Assessed Taxes,	98,006	Salt,	35,554
Customs,	782,129	Opium,	1,916
Salt,	1,495,816	Mint,	41,797
Opium,	2,526,374	Administration,	38,401
Mint,	64,326	Minor Departments,	8,114
Police,	29	Police,	3,819
Stationery and Printing,	1,784	Marine,	158,983
Interest,	163,957	Stationery and Printing,	3,960
Receipts in aid of Superannuation and other allowances,	39,456	Political Agencies,	74,859
Miscellaneous,	10,473	Allowances and Assignments,	132,270
Gain by Exchange,	53,027	Civil Furlough Allowances,	1,734
Post-Office,	288,835	Superannuation,	71,022
Military,	243,797	Miscellaneous,	5,320
Marine,	28,018	Post-Office,	374,148
Public Works,	12,104	Loss by Exchange,	594,462
Irrigation,	26,726	Public Works,	175,757
Telegraph,	156,454	Irrigation,	150,728
		Telegraphs,	167,108
		Bombay Army,*	5,434,957
Total,	9,368,265	Total,	7,777,365
<i>Provincial Funds.</i>		<i>Provincial Funds.</i>	
Land Revenue,	665,017	Refund,	27,780
Excise,	543,839	Land Revenue,	64,990
Assessed Taxes,	40,533	Excise,	18,753
Customs,	8,541	Assessed Taxes,	2,470
Salt,	4,382	Customs,	81,342
Stamps,	421,536	Salt,	55,210
Registration,	27,931	Stamps,	18,598
Minor Departments,	4,132	Registration,	22,228
Law and Justice,	90,553	Mint,	26
Police,	24,034	Post-Office,	8,927
Marine,	5,02	Administration,	122,539
Education,	24,105	Minor Departments,	12,514
Medical,	8,944	Law and Justice,	521,600
Stationery and Printing,	3,955	Police,	405,585
Interest,	5,713	Marine,	7,121
Superannuation,	13,119	Education,	100,289
Miscellaneous,	7,805	Ecclesiastical,	32,703
Other Public Works,	66,998	Medical,	117,648
Contributions, Imperial and Local Funds,	1,471,586	Stationery and Printing,	46,026
		Political Agencies,	386
		Allowances and Assignments,	691,383
		Superannuation,	103,373
		Miscellaneous,	26,701
		Other Public Works,	245,594
		Contributions, Imperial and Local,	80,843
Total,	3,433,849	Total,	1,395,855
<i>Local Funds.</i>		<i>Local Funds.</i>	
District Road Fund,	229,560	District Road Fund,	224,782
District Educational Fund,	124,380	District Educational Fund,	118,624
Fund for Pensions,	5,695	Indus Conservancy Fund,	5,032
Port Fund,	26,859	Port Fund,	39,428
Cantonment Fund,	10,022	Cantonment Fund,	9,702
Indus Conservancy,	5,268	Miscellaneous,	17,106
Miscellaneous,	16,226		
Total,	418,010	Total,	414,674
<i>Municipal Funds.</i>		<i>Municipal Funds.</i>	
Bombay Municipality,	325,187	Bombay Municipality,	301,792
Other Municipalities,	272,633	Other Municipalities,	281,520
Total,	597,820	Total,	583,312
Grand Total,	13,817,944	Grand Total,	12,135,266

* This item shows an increase of £2,271,318 over that of the previous year, due entirely to the war in Afghanistan.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The table on the previous page shows the revenue and expenditure of the Bombay Presidency for the year 1880–81, including provincial, local, and municipal funds.

This table, which has been specially compiled from the materials given in the Administration Report for that year, must not be accepted as an accurate balance-sheet of the finances of the Presidency. For example, the receipts from opium are not, properly speaking, an item of revenue to Bombay, but a tax levied upon the Chinese consumer of a drug which has been produced in Central India. Similarly, on the other side of the account, items of Imperial expenditure, such as the army and interest on debt, are not debited against the Bombay treasury. It must also be observed that the apparently adverse balance in the department of Provincial funds is equalized by a grant of £982,233 from the Imperial exchequer, which sum is again debited as Imperial expenditure in the Bombay accounts.

Education.—The educational system in Bombay, as throughout the rest of India, is based upon the celebrated Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, dated 19th July 1854. It consists on the one hand of a widely distributed class of vernacular or village schools, subsidized by grants-in-aid from Government, and under inspection by the Educational Department; and on the other, of a limited number of institutions, which teach in English up to the curriculum of the University, and are for the most part maintained at Government expense. In the year 1880–81, the total number of schools and colleges in the Presidency was 5343, attended on an average by 223,364 pupils daily, showing 1 school to every 23·2 square miles of area, and 13·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. Of the 41,997 towns and inhabited villages contained in the Presidency and its dependencies, 4154, or about 1 in 10, were provided with schools, and the number of scholars on the rolls at the close of the year was 316,974. Of the whole number of schools, 4398 were Government institutions, 255 private institutions receiving aid from Government, 662 were unaided, but under inspection by Government agency, and 28 were police and jail schools. In these figures are included 9 colleges for higher instruction, 7 technical schools, 9 normal schools, 50 high schools for boys, 2 high schools for girls, and 240 middle-class schools, of which 16 are for girls. The total expenditure of the department amounted to £244,705, of which £108,912 was derived from Provincial funds, and £135,793 from Local funds. In addition, a sum of £70,285 was expended the same year on education by the Native States of the Bombay Presidency. The vernacular schools alone numbered 4705, attended by 275,642 scholars. These are mainly supported by an allotment of one-third of the 1 anna cess on every rupee of the land revenue, augmented by the grant of a lump sum from Government. There were 298 primary girls' schools, with

17,612 pupils, of which nearly one-half are private institutions. Of the total number of the children in schools connected with Government, 2·12 per cent. were Christians, 22·11 Bráhmans, 60·96 other Hindus, 11·32 Muhammadans, 2·59 Pársís, and the remainder were Jews, aborigines, and 'others.' Of the principal races that attend the schools in this Presidency, Bráhmans are the most numerous in proportion to their number, and Hindu cultivators and Muhammadans the least numerous class, except in primary schools, where the proportion of Pársí pupils is the smallest. About one-quarter of the pupils attending educational institutions of the higher classes are sons of Government official; ; one-eighth sons of persons of property; one-ninth, sons of private clerks; one-sixteenth, sons of merchants, and the remainder sons of cultivators. The number of pupils learning English was 22,237, and Sanskrit 3295. The most important colleges are, the Elphinstone College in Bombay city, with an average daily attendance of 158 in 1881-82; the Deccan College at Poona, with 120 pupils; the Gujarát College, with an average daily attendance of 17; and the Rájáram College, with an average daily attendance of 18. Among institutions for special instruction may be mentioned—the Law School, with 152 students; the Grant Medical College, with 282; and the Poona College of Science, with 188. The Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy School of Art, with 103 pupils, is also under the Education Department. The Bombay University was founded by Lord Elphinstone in 1857. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and senate; and its function is to examine and confer degrees in arts, law, medicine, and engineering. Large endowments have been received at different times from the wealthy merchants of Bombay, by means of which a handsome hall and library have been erected on the esplanade.

The languages spoken in the Bombay Presidency are Maráthí, Gujaráthí, Sindhí, and Kánarese; Urdu or Hindustání is also in common use among the educated and trading Muhammadans. In the year 1880-81, the total number of publications registered was 980, of which 91 were printed in English, and 889 in Oriental languages. The total number of printing-presses was 74, of which as many as 47 are found in Bombay city, and 20 in the Deccan. The number of native newspapers appearing was 73, either printed or lithographed, of which 2 were entirely in English, 11 Anglo-Maráthí, 30 purely Maráthí, 4 Anglo-Gujaráthí, 27 purely Gujaráthí, and the remainder in Urdu, Hindí and Persian. Two of these papers, edited in Bombay city by Pársís, have existed for 57 and 45 years respectively. The leading association for the advancement of learning in the Presidency is the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, originally founded in 1804, with which the Bombay Geographical Society was amalgamated in 1874. The Medical and Physical Society was founded in 1863. The Sassoon

Mechanics' Institute has a reference library of 15,000 volumes. There are altogether 90 libraries registered in the Presidency. In the year 1880-81, the post-offices numbered 735, the letter-boxes 1380, and the total mileage of postal lines was 10,493. The post-office received for delivery a total of 28,084,992 articles. The length of telegraph line at the close of the same year was 1930 miles, and the length of wire 6490 miles in Bombay Proper ; in Sind the length of line was 1593, and of wire 4518 miles.

Medical Aspects—Climate.—Great varieties of climate are met with in the Bombay Presidency. In its extreme dryness and heat, combined with the aridity of a sandy soil, Upper Sind resembles the deserts of Arabia. The thermometer here has been known to register 130° F. in the shade. At Haidarábád, in Lower Sind, the mean maximum temperature during the six hottest months in the year is 98·50°; the rise of temperature in the water of the Indus is also remarkable. In Cutch and Gujarát the sultry heat, if not so excessive, is still very trying. Bombay island itself, though in general cooled by the sea-breeze, is oppressively hot during May and October. The Konkan is hot and moist, the fall of rain during the monsoon sometimes reaching 300 inches. The table-land of the Deccan above the Gháts possesses an agreeable climate, as also does the South Maráthá country. On the hills of Mahábaleshwar, Singarh, and other detached heights, Europeans may go out all hours of the day with impunity. According to a series of returns, extending over a period of twenty-eight years, taken at the meteorological station of Kolába, the mean annual temperature is 79·2° F., ranging from 73·6° in the month of January to 84·2° in May; the average annual rainfall is 70·30 inches, of which 70·8 fall in the seven months between May and November. The south-west monsoon generally breaks about the first week in June, and pours down torrents of rain along the coast. From that date up to October the rainy season may be said to last, during which travelling is everywhere difficult and unpleasant, except in Sind, where the monsoon rains exert little influence.

Diseases.—The most prevalent diseases are fevers of various types, including the malarious fevers of Gujarát and Kánara, especially dreaded by Europeans; cholera, which seems to display a curious tendency towards epidemic outbreaks at triennial intervals; bowel complaints, including diarrhoea and dysentery; small-pox, which has recently been checked to some extent by the extension of the practice of vaccination; ague, rheumatic affections, lung diseases, syphilis and various cutaneous disorders. Conservancy arrangements are enforced by the Sanitary and Vaccination Departments, which have been amalgamated, and an official with the title of Deputy Sanitary Commissioner has been placed in every District. The actual outlay in 1880 under

the head of sanitary works, military, amounted to £14,069. The vital statistics are recorded in the several municipalities by the municipal officers, and elsewhere by the village head-men and accountants—except in cantonments and in the province of Sind, where, in the absence of a regular village establishment, the work is done by the ordinary revenue officers; they cannot be accepted as accurate, but they give some indication of the relative mortality from different diseases. During 1880–81, 328,673 deaths were registered throughout the Presidency, giving a death-rate of 20·25 per thousand, as compared with an average of 24·35 for the previous nine years. Of the total number of deaths, 246,779 were assigned to fevers, a very vague term among native practitioners; only 684 to cholera, which in 1878 carried off 46,743, and in 1879, 6937 persons; 24,452 to bowel complaints; and 940 to small-pox: 1179 deaths from snake-bite were recorded in the same year. In the same year 370,873 births were registered, showing a birth-rate of 22·85 per thousand. Calculations based upon the ages of the population yield an average death-rate throughout the Presidency of 35·57 per thousand, and a birth-rate of 41·05. In the year 1880–81, the staff of 431 vaccinators performed 704,984 operations at a total cost of £23,714.

Charitable institutions for medical relief consist of two classes. The Civil Hospitals in 1880–81 numbered 43, at which 307,030 patients were treated. The Dispensaries in 1880–81 numbered 144, of which 6 were in Native States; they were attended by 893,366 patients. The total expenditure on these dispensaries was £24,171. There were 5 Lunatic Asylums in the Presidency, with 913 inmates in the year 1881. The expenditure was £9140, or an average of £15 per head.

Bombay.—The city of Bombay, the capital of the Presidency of Bombay, and the principal seaport of Western India, is situated on an island in 18° 55' 5" N. lat., and 72° 53' 55" E. long. Bombay island is one of a group (perhaps that called Heptanesia by Arrian) lying off the coast of the Konkan; but by the recent construction of causeways and breakwaters, it is now permanently united on the north with the larger island of Salsette, and so continuously with the mainland. The remainder of the group of islands constitute a part of Thána District. For certain administrative purposes, Bombay city is regarded as constituting a District by itself, with an area of 22 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 773,196 souls.

Bombay island is in shape a trapezoid. It is popularly likened to a hand laid palm upwards, with the fingers stretching southwards into the sea, and the thumb representing Malabár Hill, with Back Bay between the thumb and forefinger. Others see a resemblance in it to a withered leg, with a very high heel and pointed toe, the heel being Malabár Hill, and the toe Kolába. It is 11½ miles long from the south extremity of Kolába to Lion Causeway, over which the railway passes to the larger

island of Salsette, and from 3 to 4 miles broad in that portion which lies to the north of the esplanade. The portion of Bombay called the Fort, abutting on the harbour, and separated from the native city proper by a large *maidán* or park, is the most important, most English, and busiest quarter of the town.

History.—The name of Bombay was erroneously supposed to have been given by the Portuguese, on account of the geographical position of the island—*Bom-bahia* or *Boa-bahia*, ‘*statio fidissima nautis.*’ Colonel H. Yule, however, traces it back to the latter half of the compound name Tanna-Maiamba or Mayamba, which, according to Barbosa, *circ.* 1516, was used to designate the kingdom of the Konkan in the 16th century. The name appears as Maimbi in the very early geographical *Sommario de Regni*, translated from the Portuguese in Ramudio, written probably 1520–25. There can be little doubt that this word, in its turn, was a corruption of Mamba-devi, a goddess who had a famous shrine in the neighbourhood, mentioned in Forbes’ *Rds Mûla*, *circ.* 1630. The Portuguese of the 16th century call it Mombain or Bombaim, never Bom-bahia or Boa-bahia. The Maráthá name of Bombay is Mumbaí, from Mahímá, ‘Great Mother,’ a title of Deví. In support of the popular etymology from Buon Bahía, ‘fair haven,’ it may be said that Bombay undoubtedly possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. But the evidence leaves little doubt that the true derivation is from the Maráthá Mumbaí, *i.e.* Mahímá, ‘the Great Mother,’ or Deví. It thus happens that both the great British capitals of India, Bombay on the western coast, and Calcutta (*q.v.*) on the eastern, take their names from titles or designations of the same goddess, the wife of Siva, the lord of death and reproduction.

The history of Bombay begins with the cession of the island by the Portuguese to Charles II. in 1661, as part of the dowry of his queen, Catherine of Braganza. The adjoining islands, however, of Salsette and Karanja still remained in the possession of the Portuguese. At this time the population was estimated at 10,000 souls, and the revenue at 75,000 *xeraphins*, or £6500. The king appears to have found his distant acquisition unprofitable, and in 1668 he transferred it to the East India Company on payment of an annual rent of £10 in gold. The Company forthwith took steps for the strengthening of the fortifications, and the encouragement of European settlers. Dr. Fryer, who visited the island in 1673, describes the population as numbering 60,000—‘a mixture of most of the neighbouring countries, mostly rogues and vagabonds.’ He has left an elaborate description of the place as it then existed. The fort or castle was armed with 120 pieces of ordnance; and the town, which lay at some distance, was a full mile in length. The greater number of the inhabitants, especially of the suburb of Mazagon, were engaged in fishing. The Portuguese still

had several churches on the island. Between Parel and Máhim, the sea had made a wide breach, drowning 40,000 acres of good land. But the most striking point in all the early accounts is the excessive unhealthiness of the place, which cannot be attributed solely to the mode of life of the residents. Fryer declares it as his opinion that out of every 500 Europeans who came to live on the island, not 100 left it. A current proverb affirmed that two monsoons (or rainy seasons) were the age of a man. The most fatal disease, called by the Portuguese practitioners 'the Chinese death,' has been identified with cholera. The name arose, apparently, from a fanciful French or Latin etymology for the '*mordexim*' or '*mor-de-chin*,' the old west-coast term for cholera. Garcia d'Orta (1568) distinctly states that it was an Indian word, *morxi*. It is, in fact, a corruption of the Maráthi and Konkáni words *modachi* and *modshi*, meaning cholera.

In Fryer's time (1673) the factory of Surat, established sixty years before the cession of Bombay, was the chief possession of the East India Company in Western India. Bombay itself was exposed to the ill-will of the Portuguese on Salsette island, who were able to cut off all direct communication with the mainland. The most formidable enemy, however, was the Sídí or Abyssinian admiral of the Mughal fleet, whose descendants are represented at the present day by the Nawáb of Janjirá. In 1668, the Sídí wintered at Mazagon, and laid siege to Bombay castle; and the town was only saved by a direct appeal to the Emperor. During this period also, the English in India were greatly hampered by domestic dissensions. In 1684, orders were received to transfer the chief seat of the Company's trade from Surat to Bombay, and the transfer had been effected by 1687. In 1708, the two Companies privileged to trade with the East were fused into the United East India Company, and Bombay was chosen as the seat of one of the three independent Presidencies, each of which was ruled over by a Governor-in-Council. It was not till 1773 that Bombay was subjected to the control of the Governor-General. Henceforth the history of Bombay city merges into that of the Presidency. The only event that need be specially recorded is the first Maráthá war (1774-1782), which resulted, after many military vicissitudes, in the permanent occupation by the English of all the Bombay group of islands, and of the town of Thána on the mainland. The city had long been a refuge for the fugitives from Maráthá oppression, who could there alone find safety for their industry and commerce; but after the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818, Bombay became the capital of a large territory, and from that year may be dated her pre-eminence in Western India. She was especially fortunate in her early governors. From 1819 to 1830, she was ruled successively by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone and Sir John Malcolm. The first founded the present system of administration; the second, by opening

the road through the Bhor-Ghát, broke down the natural barrier that separated the sea-coast from the table-land of the Deccan. The next stage in the course of onward prosperity was reached when Bombay was brought into direct communication with Europe through the energy and exertions of Lieutenant Waghorn, the pioneer of the Overland Route. In the early years of the present century, express couriers or adventurous travellers used sometimes to make their way to or from India across the isthmus of Suez, or occasionally even through Persia. A monthly mail service was commenced by way of Egypt in 1838, and the contract was first taken up by the Peninsular and Oriental Company in 1855. Bombay is now recognised as the one port of arrival and departure for all the English mails, and also for the troopships of the Indian army. But the city could not have attained this position, if the means of communication on the landward side had not received a corresponding development. In 1850, the first sod was turned of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and three years afterwards the line was opened as far as Thána, the first railway in the country. By 1863, the railway had been led up the formidable Bhor-Ghát to Poona, by a triumph of engineering skill. In 1870, through communication was established with Calcutta, in 1871 with Madras. The city has a successful tramway system. There is now a prospect of more direct railway communication being established, *viâ* Nágpur in the Central Provinces, with Calcutta.

But it is not only as the capital of a Presidency, or as the central point of arrival and departure for Indian travellers, that Bombay has achieved its highest reputation. It is best known as the great cotton market of Western and Central India, to which the manufacturers of Lancashire turned when the American war cut off their supplies. Even in the last century the East India Company was accustomed to export raw cotton as part of its investment, both to the United Kingdom and to China. This trade continued during the early years of the present century, but it was marked by extreme vicissitudes in quantity and price, the demand being entirely determined by the out-turn of the American crop. The war between the Northern and Southern States was declared in 1861, and the merchants and shippers of Bombay promptly took advantage of their opportunity. The exports of cotton rapidly augmented under the stimulus of high prices, until in 1864-65, the last year of the war, they reached a total value of 30 millions sterling, or nearly ten-fold the average of ten years before. Large fortunes were acquired by successful ventures, and the wild spirit of speculation thus engendered spread through all classes of the community. The scenes of the South Sea Bubble were revived. No joint-stock project seemed too absurd to find subscribers. Banks, financial associations, and land companies, each with millions of

nominal capital, were started every month, and their shares were immediately run up to fabulous premiums. The crash came in the spring of 1865, when the news was received of the termination of the American war. A panic ensued which baffles description, and the entire edifice of stock exchange speculation came toppling down like a house of cards. Merchants and private individuals were ruined by hundreds, and the quasi-official Bank of Bombay collapsed along with the rest. But despite this sudden flood of disaster, honest trade soon revived on a stable basis; and the city of Bombay at the present day, in its buildings, its docks, and its land reclamations, stands as a monument of the grand schemes of public usefulness which were started during these four years of unhealthy excitement.

General Aspect.—In the beauty of its scenery, as well as in the commercial advantages of its position, Bombay is unsurpassed by any of the cities of the East. The Bombay island, or, as it may now be called, the Bombay peninsula, is connected with the mainland on the north by solid railway embankments. The entrance into the harbour from the sea discloses a magnificent panorama. The background is shut in by the barrier range of the Western Gháts. In front opens the wide harbour, studded with islands and jutting precipices, dotted with the white sails of innumerable native craft, and affording a secure shelter to fleets of tall-masted merchantmen. The city itself consists of well-built houses, and broad streets ennobled by public buildings. The sea-shore is formed by docks, warehouses, and a long line of artificial embankments extending continuously for nearly five miles. On approaching Bombay from the west, there is little to strike the eye. The coast is low, the highest point, Malabár Hill, being only about 180 feet above the sea. But on entering the harbour a stranger is impressed with the picturesqueness of the scene. To the west the shore is crowded with buildings, some of them, as Kolába Church and the Rájábái clock-tower of the University, very lofty and well-proportioned. To the north and east are numerous islands, and pre-eminent amongst the hills, the remarkable one of Báma Malang, otherwise called Mallangarh, on the top of which is an enormous mass of perpendicular rock, crowned with a ruined fort. The harbour is an animated and picturesque scene. There are usually a troopship and a man-of-war of H.M.'s East Indian Squadron, together with numerous large passenger or merchant steamers of the European lines. Among these may be mentioned the Peninsular and Oriental Company's line, the Rubatino (an Italian) line, the British Indian Steam Navigation Company, the Messageries Maritimes, the 'Clan,' 'Anchor,' 'Hall,' and 'National' lines. Many other steamers and merchantmen are to be seen riding at anchor, swinging with the swiftly-flowing tide, and discharging or receiving cargo. All kinds of

boats, ship's dingies, steam-launches, native 'bundlers,' and 'karachis' incessantly ply on the harbour.

The island consists of a low-lying plain about $11\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by 3 to 4 broad, flanked by two parallel ridges of low hills. Point Kolába, the headland formed by the longer of these ridges, protects the harbour on its eastern side from the force of the open sea. The other ridge terminates in Malabár Hill; and between the two lies the shallow expanse of Back Bay. On a slightly raised strip of land between the head of Back Bay and the harbour is situated the Fort, the original nucleus round which the town grew up, but now chiefly occupied by stately public buildings and commercial offices. From this point the land slopes westward to the central plain, which, before the construction of the embankment known as the Hornby Velard, was liable to be submerged at high tide. To the north and east, recent schemes of reclamation have similarly shut out the sea, and partly redeemed the foreshore for the use of commerce. In the extreme north of the island a large tract of salt marsh still remains unreclaimed.

The Government offices, the business houses, and the shops cluster thickly in the part of the city called the Fort. Many of the public and commercial buildings, constructed during the past twenty years, are of splendid dimensions, and have no rival in any other Indian city, except perhaps Calcutta. The houses in the native *bázár* are also handsomely built, rising three, four, and even six stories in height, with elaborately carved pillars and frontwork. Some of the narrow, unpaved, and crowded streets give an inadequate idea of the real opulence of their inhabitants. But in many of them may be seen evidences of the wealth of the city and of the magnificence of its merchant princes. The most conspicuous line of public buildings is on the esplanade facing Back Bay. Here is the Secretariat, an enormous erection in the Venetian-Gothic style of architecture; the University Senate Hall and clock-tower; the new High Court; the offices of the Public Works Department, the Post and Telegraph Offices. A little inland and behind the Secretariat range of buildings runs the broad thoroughfare of Rampart Row, off which branch many narrow streets containing native and European shops. Rampart Row and its continuation towards the Apollo Bandar (landing-place) form the main line of thoroughfare of the European city of Bombay. Along one side of Rampart Row is a colonnade of arches giving entrance to the Bombay Club, the French Bank, and other buildings. On the opposite side of Rampart Row, which is here fifty or sixty yards broad, rises another line of many-storied offices, chiefly belonging to merchants in grain and cotton. The Fort is illuminated during the night by means of the electric light. Near the Apollo Bandar is the Sailors' Home, erected at the expense of a recent Gáekwár of Baroda. Behind

the Sailors' Home is the Royal Yacht Club, a favourite resort of Bombay society. At the other end of Rampart Row is a white marble statue of the Queen, under a Gothic canopy, also the gift of the Gáekwár. The most important buildings in the densely-built space occupying the site of the Fort are the circular row of offices and warehouses known as the Elphinstone Circle, the Custom House, the Town Hall, the Mint, and the Cathedral.

The Castle and Fort St. George are the only two spots now retaining any traces of fortification. The real defences of Bombay consist at present of the two turret ships *Abyssinia* and *Magdala*, armed with 10-inch guns. A scheme for erecting ironclad forts mounted with heavy guns, in mid-channel at the entrance of the harbour, is still under consideration. The existing defences of Bombay Harbour are batteries on rocks, which stud the sea from about opposite the Memorial Church at Kolába to the Elphinstone reclamation. The one most to the south is called the Oyster Rock, which is 1000 yards from the shore and 8400 feet s.w. of the Middle Ground Battery. The fort on the Middle Ground shoal is in the middle of the anchorage, 1800 yards from shore. The third defence is on Cross Island, at the north end of the anchorage, 100 yards from the shore, and 4000 yards from Middle Ground. There is a battery also on the higher part of the island.

The private houses of the European residents lie apart from the mercantile and the native quarters of the town. As a rule, each is built in a large garden or compound; and although the style of architecture is less imposing than that of the stately mansions of Calcutta, it is well suited to the climate, and has a beauty and comfort of its own. In former times, the favourite quarter was the northern suburb of Parell, which has contained the official residence of the Governor of Bombay for the last hundred years. At present, the majority of the Europeans live on or around Malabár Hill, now terraced to the top with handsome houses, commanding a magnificent view over the city and the sea. North of Malabár Hill runs another European suburb, known as Breach Candy, where the houses are built close down upon the shore, within the refreshing sound of the waves. Of recent years, both Kumbála Hill, a continuation of Malabár Hill, and the outlying spur of Kolába are being covered with the residences of Europeans. The Governor has a pretty marine villa at Malabár Point. During the hot-weather months of the early summer, his Excellency and staff, with the Council and chief officers at head-quarters, repair to Mahábaleshwar, and spend the rainy or monsoon season at Poona.

Population.—Limiting the area of Calcutta to the municipality, and excluding the suburbs, Bombay ranks as the most populous city in India, and the second in the whole British Empire. According to the

Census of 1881, the population of the Bombay municipality, which is co-extensive with Bombay island, in an area of 22 square miles, is—males, 464,763; females, 308,433: total, 773,196, or an average of 33,662 persons per square mile. The total number of houses of all kinds is 29,853 occupied, and 1502 unoccupied, showing an average of 26·35 persons per house. The corresponding average in London is only 7·79. The proportion of males in the total population is 60·0 per cent. The following table gives the population classified according to religion or nationality, with the percentage of each class in the total. The greater bulk of the people is contained in the quarters entitled Dhobí Taláo Market, Mándevis, Umákháris, Bholeshwar, Khetwádi, Kamátipura, Khárá, Taláo, Byculla, Tarwári, Mazagon, Girgáon, Chaupatti, and Tardeo, which cover an area of about 4 square miles only.

POPULATION OF BOMBAY CITY (1881).

RELIGION OR NATIONALITY.	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE.
Buddhists and Jains,	17,387	2·2
Bráhmans,	31,199	4·0
Lingáyats,	1,167	0·1
Rájpúts,	3,537	0·6
Hindu Súdras,	353,113	45·7
Hindu outcastes,	113,835	14·7
Muhammadians,	158,713	20·5
Pársís,	48,597	6·3
Jews,	3,321	0·5
Native Christians and Portuguese,	30,708	3·9
Eurasians,	1,168	0·1
Europeans,	10,451	1·4
* Total,	773,196*	100·0

* Including 24,887 on board ships and boats in harbour.

Hardly any city in the world presents a greater variety of national types than Bombay. The Hindu and the Muhammadan, of course, predominate in numbers, but in the busy streets the characteristic dress of every Oriental people may be seen. The green and gold turban of the Musalmán, the large red or white head-dress peculiar to the Maráthá, the pointed red turban of the Guzeráthí Baniyá, and the black or brown brimless hat of the Pársí, lend colour and variety to the scene. The Pársís exercise an influence much greater than is implied by their numbers. When the commerce of Western India deserted Surat in the last century, they settled in Bombay; and now, by the force of their inherited wealth, their natural genius for trade, their intelligence, and their munificent charities, they hold the first place among the native community. Their position was gracefully recognised by the Crown, when Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy received a

baronetcy in 1857. The Hindu traders, or Baniyás, rank next to the Pársís. They may be divided into two classes—the Baniyás of Guzerát, and the Márwáris of Central India. A large proportion of both these classes adhere to the Jain religion, generally regarded as a distinct offshoot of Indian Buddhism; while not a few of the remainder belong to the Vaishnav sect, especially that sub-denomination known as Vallábh-achárjyas. The Muhammadans include representatives from all the great countries that have embraced Islám—Arabs, Persians, Turks, Afgháns, Malays, and Africans. The three classes of trading Muhammadans—the Memons, Boráhs, and Khojáhs—are especially numerous. Their commercial dealings are chiefly with the Persian Gulf, Zanzibar, and the east coast of Africa, while the Pársís and Jews compete with the English in the markets of Europe.

Of the total area of the island, about 8500 acres are assessed as arable land. The chief crop grown is rice; but many varieties of garden vegetables are also cultivated, particularly onions, and several members of the gourd tribe. The rearing of cocoa-nut trees, and the preparation of intoxicating drink from this tree and other species of palms, afford employment to a considerable section of the population. The Bombay mangoes are said to have been improved from grafts by the Jesuits and Portuguese priests. They have long been famous throughout India for their delicate flavour. The Bombay *pumalo*, a shaddock which looks like a large orange, is also a favourite fruit.

Bombay supports all the many industries incidental to the active life of a great city and seaport. The trades of dyeing, tanning, and working in metal are specially prosperous. The School of Art has recently done much to encourage those technical faculties which depend upon an artistic and scientific education. But the characteristic feature of Bombay manufacture is the rapid growth of the European factory system. Mills, worked by steam, and employing a large number of operatives, have been erected by local capital, especially in the northern suburbs, where the tall chimney-stacks recall a factory town in Lancashire. In 1881-82, there were 36 mills at work, with a nominal horse-power of 6208, employing 31,801 hands, and a total of 1,056,004 spindles, and 11,274 looms. Sir James Caird has remarked that the monthly wage of a worker in these mills is about equivalent to the weekly wage of a factory hand in Lancashire. The sea-borne commerce of Bombay has been included in the tables given in the previous article for Bombay Presidency. In 1880-81, 45,146 sailing ships and 1212 steamers, including foreign and coasting craft, entered the port, with a total tonnage of 2,360,985. The total value of the trade, both imports and exports, was £71,695,017. The principal article of import is cotton piece-goods, valued at £7,303,260; the chief article of export is raw cotton, valued at £9,777,185.

Administration.—Besides the High Court, which is a court of first instance for causes arising within the island of Bombay, there are also a Small Cause Court and three Presidency magistrates, having jurisdiction in the city. The total cost of these tribunals, exclusive of the Courts of the Presidency magistrates, was £86,039, of which £51,826 was covered by the stamp revenue on cases decided by them. Excluding the collection of the customs revenue of the port of Bombay, and other items of imperial revenue, such as stamps, excise, and land, amounting altogether to about £150,000 a year, the civil administration of Bombay city is entrusted to the municipal corporation created by the Acts of 1872 and 1878. One-half the members are elected by the ratepayers, and the rest are nominated by the Government and the Justices of the Peace. The members of the corporation, in their turn, elect eight out of twelve members of a Town Council, by whom the general administration of affairs is controlled. The remaining four members of the Town Council, and the chairman, are nominated by Government. The principal executive officer of the Town Council is the municipal commissioner appointed by Government. In 1881, among a total of 64 members of the corporation, the principal nationalities represented were—25 Europeans, 13 Pársis, 14 Hindus, 1 Portuguese, and 3 Muhammadans. Of the 64 members, 16 were official and 48 non-official. The corporation elects its own chairman, and in 1884–85 that position was held by a Pársi barrister. The following table shows the balance-sheet for 1880–81:—

BALANCE-SHEET OF BOMBAY MUNICIPALITY FOR 1880–81.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
House rate.	£89,963	General superintendence, . .	£12,849
Government contribution to police,	7,500	Assessment and collection, . .	8,601
Wheel-tax,	23,192	Health department,	69,087
Liquor licences,	14,375	Market and slaughter-houses, .	6,495
Land conveyance licences, . .	84	Engineer's department, . . .	45,611
Town duties,	65,778	Tobacco duty establishment, .	1,573
Tobacco duty licences,	16,112	Town duty establishments, . .	3,166
Contribution from Insurance Companies,	2,391	Interest on loans,	18,146
Markets,	23,238	Charges on loans,	1,603
Tramway rent,	2,018	Sinking Fund,	8,690
Public gardens,	817	Primary education,	1,730
<i>Halalkhor</i> (Scavenger) cess, . .	20,305	Gokaldas Tejpal Hospital, . .	3,600
Water-rate,	39,070	Rent of municipal office, . .	3,360
Contributions towards pension, .	938	New works,	13,744
Miscellaneous fines,	1,417	Public account,	38,396
„ fees,	6,493	Lighting,	26,138
„ receipts,	4,413	Waterworks,	38,870
„ savings,	324	Repayment of Drainage Loan, .	2,200
Profit on stores adjusted, . . .	6,754	Other small items,	1,937
Total,	£325,182	Total,	£305,796

Surplus on year's revenue for 1880–81, £19,386.

The *halalkhor* (scavenger) cess and the water-rate represent payments for services rendered. Excluding these two items, the receipts of the municipality from taxation amounted to £265,807, or an average rate of taxation of 8s. 6d. per head. Of the total receipts, 68 per cent. was derived from taxation, 18 per cent. from payments for services rendered, 8 per cent. from municipal property, and 6 per cent. from miscellaneous sources. The total liabilities of the municipality at the end of the year 1881 were £1,191,726, and the total assets (including a cash balance of £76,209) were £1,374,416. About the year 1872, the total rateable value of the city was assessed at £1,155,000, having fallen from £1,630,000 within the previous nine years. The city police in 1880-81 consisted of a strength of 1423 officers and men, including 293 men paid from imperial sources and employed on harbour duty, or as guards to Government offices; or 65 men to every square mile of area, and 1 man to every 543 of the population. The military force at Bombay on 1st January 1882 consisted of five batteries of artillery, a European regiment, and two and a half battalions of native infantry. The headquarters of the Bombay army are at Poona, and the headquarters of Bombay District Command only are at Bombay. Education in 1880-81 was represented by 146 schools and colleges, with a total of 16,413 pupils, being 1 school to every 18 square mile, and 21·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. The income of the Bombay Port Trust for the year 1880-81 was £276,683, and the expenditure £270,394, inclusive of £152,656 due as interest on capital, leaving a net surplus of £6288, which was paid away in reduction of loans.

Newspapers.—A vigorous English and vernacular press flourishes in Bombay. The *Bombay Gazette* and the *Times of India*, both of them daily journals, well-edited and well-informed, represent the Anglo-Indian community. The *Indian Spectator* is an excellent native weekly journal in the English language. The *Bombay Catholic Examiner* ably represents the Roman Catholic inhabitants. The *Bombay Chronicle*, a native paper, also deserves notice. The vernacular press includes *Indu Prakash*, *Jam-e-Jamshed*, *Rast Gostar*, *Bombay Samachar*, *Arya Patrika*, and *Gujarathi*. These native papers address their respective circles of readers, explaining passing political events, criticising official appointments, and bringing grievances to light.

Medical Aspects.—Bombay is not so excessively hot as some other parts of India. But on the other hand, it has not the bracing cold weather of the Northern Provinces. The cool months last from November to May. The south-west monsoon begins about the second week in June, and the rain continues with great regularity until the end of September. The hottest months of the year are May and October, but even then the heat is tempered by cool breezes

from the sea. The average rainfall of the year, as registered at Kolába observatory, is 70·30 inches; the average temperature, 79·2° F. The average death-rate in Bombay city during the five years ending 1880 was 38·10 per thousand. In 1881, a total of 21,553 deaths were registered, of which 529 were assigned to cholera, 37 to small-pox, 6411 to fevers, and 2004 to bowel complaints; the death-rate was 27·87 per thousand. The cost of the Public Health Department in 1880 was £69,088, or deducting receipts, £41,090. The health of the city may now be said to have returned to its normal condition before the influx of immigrants from the famine Districts in 1877. The number of births registered in Bombay city in 1881 was 16,381, giving a ratio of 21·19 per thousand. There are 5 civil hospitals in Bombay city, and a dispensary at Máhim, with an average daily number of 612 in-door, and 577 out-door patients. There is a lunatic asylum at Kolába, which contained a daily average of 297·2 inmates in 1880–81, maintained at a cost to the State of £17, 6s. per head. In 1881–82, a staff of 8 vaccinators was employed in Bombay city, who performed 18,869 operations at a total cost of £1608.

Bomori.—Town in Orchha State, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. Lat. 25° 26' 20" N., long. 79° 54' 40" E.; on the road from Agra to Sagar (Saugor), distant from the former 180 miles south-east, from the latter 93 miles north-west. Situated on rising ground, on the bank of an extensive artificial lake, 4 miles in length and 2 in breadth, formed by damming up the course of a small stream, and largely utilized for irrigation. On a rocky ridge overlooking the lake stands the ruined palace of the Rájá who constructed it. Population (1881) 2067.

Bomráj (*Bomráj pálem*).—Estate in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Formerly, with Venkatagiri, Kálahasti, and Sayyidpur, constituting the 'District of Western Palayams.' The peculiar revenue and stipendiary usages of this estate form a marked contrast to those in the neighbouring tracts under British administration.

Bonái.—The most southerly of the Tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between 21° 35' 30" and 22° 7' 45" N. lat., and between 84° 31' 5" and 85° 25' E. long.; area, 1349 square miles; population (1881) 24,030. Bounded on the north by part of Singbhúm District and by Gángpur State; on the south and west by Bámra, a feudatory State of the Central Provinces; and on the east by Keunjhar State, Orissa.

Physical Aspects.—The State is shut in on all sides by the lofty BONAI HILLS, which occupy so large a portion of the country that only one-twelfth of the entire area is under cultivation. The Bráhmañ flows from north to south, forming in the centre of the State a fertile and comparatively level tract, in which most of the largest

villages are situated. To reach this central valley it passes in a succession of rapids through a beautiful glen 8 miles long. These rapids present difficulties to the floating down of timber; but if they were removed, or canals cut by which they could be avoided, there would be no difficulty in sending the exceedingly valuable stores of *sál* and other timber which the State contains to False Point by this route. The timber in the Bonái and Gángpur forests along the banks of the Bráhmañi is the most valuable in the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States. Silk cocoons and stick-lac are the most valuable of the jungle products. Iron exists and is melted in the State for local use, but is not exported. Gold is found and washed in small quantities in the beds of the Bráhmañi and the hill streams. Wild animals—tigers, leopards, wolves, elephants, bison, etc.—are very numerous, and do much damage to the crops.

History, etc.—Bonái, together with Gángpur and others of the Chutiá Nágpur States, was ceded to the British Government in 1803, and restored by a special engagement in 1806. It reverted to the British under a provisional agreement made with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and was finally ceded in 1826. Besides paying a yearly tribute of £20, the Rájá is bound to furnish, when required, a contingent of armed men for military service. The State yields the Rájá an income of about £600.

Population.—Of the population of 24,030 in 1881, 23,445 were Hindus by religion, and 31 Muhammadans, while 554 were aboriginal or hill tribes belonging to other religions not separately classified. A large number of aborigines by race are included among the Hindus. Number of males, 12,445; females, 11,585. Average density of population, 18 per square mile; number of villages, 256; number of occupied houses, 4372; villages per square mile, 19; houses per square mile, 324; persons per village, 94; persons per house, 55. Of the Dravidian aborigines, the most numerous are the Bhuiyás, who are sub-divided into two clans—the Bhuiyás of the plains, and the Pahári or hill Bhuiyás. The Bhuiyás of the plains are the dominant tribe in most parts of Bonái, and were probably the earliest settlers in the country. They hold fiefs under the Rájá, and form, with the Gonds of South Bonái, the organized militia of the State. Hardly any other class of subordinate holders have fixed proprietary rights in the soil; and the Rájá had formerly no right to exercise any authority until he had received the *tilak* or token of investiture from his Bhuiyá vassals. This prerogative is still asserted by the *sdont* or head of the Bhuiyá clan in Bonái, who holds 12 villages at a quit-rent of £1, 16s. a year, and claims to be the hereditary *daudn* or finance minister of the State. The present chief, however, does not employ him or acknowledge his claim. Besides their

organization as a semi-military body, the Bhuiyás derive great power from their position as priests of the oldest temples or shrines. These temples, although now dedicated to Hindu deities, bear evidence that they were originally occupied by other images, at a period prior to the introduction of Hinduism. At some of these shrines, human sacrifices were offered every third year; and this practice continued till the country came under British rule. Next in influence to the Bhuiyás are the Gonds, also a Dravidian tribe living in the south of Bonái, bordering on Bámra State in the Central Provinces. Two members of this tribe, called respectively *dandpát* and *mahápátra*, hold fiefs on condition of military service under the Rájá. The Gonds in Bonái have now become thoroughly Hinduized, and speak no language but Uriyá. A small sprinkling of Kandhs, so long notorious for their practice of human sacrifice, is found in Bonái. They probably immigrated from Bod State in Orissa, but have long occupied a servile position in Bonái as farm labourers, and have lost all the typical characteristics of their race. Among the Hindus proper, the most noteworthy caste is the Kalíta or Kulta. They are peculiar to Sambalpur in the Central Provinces, Bonái, and Assam, and occupy in all three places a very similar position as most respectable and substantial cultivators. The Kalítas of Bonái resemble in appearance those of Assam, both having strongly-marked Aryan features with hazel or grey eyes, and there appears to be some ethnological connection between the two. The elders of the caste in Bonái, however, assert that they came originally from Mithila, the modern Tirhut, in the days of Ráma, and settled in Sambalpur, from whence they migrated into Bonái six generations ago. Colonel Dalton, in his *Ethnology of Bengal*, states that they form the best cultivators and most substantial people in the State. He found them occupying villages along with aboriginal Gonds and Kandhs, but these had nearly all fallen into the position of farm servants to the Kalítas, who had extensive fields, well-stocked farm-yards, and comfortable houses. The *pardah* system of excluding their females is unknown to them, and infant marriage is not practised.

Agriculture.—The principal crops in the State are rice, pulses, and oil-seeds. Systematic cultivation is confined to the valley of the Bráhmañí river, and, as has been already stated, only one-twelfth of the entire area is under tillage. Three regular rice crops are grown—*gord dhán*, a highland rice, sown in June and reaped in September; autumn rice, also sown in June; and a winter crop, sown in July. *Gord dhán* yields in good seasons 13 or 14 *maunds* of paddy for every *maund* of seed sown; but in bad years, or under careless tillage, the out-turn is not more than four or five fold the amount of seed. A fourth rice crop, called *dáhi dhán*, is grown on forest land by the nomadic hill

tribes. For this no ploughing is required ; the trees are cut down and burned on the land, the ashes being mixed up with the surface soil ; and the seed is put in at the commencement of the rains. The out-turn of the *ddhi* crop is from 40 to 45 times the amount of the seed, but after two years the land is exhausted. Wages in Bonái are invariably paid in kind ; a male day-labourer receives 2 *sers* (4 lbs.) of rice a day, and a woman 1½ *ser* (3 lbs.). Price of best cleaned rice in 1873, 4s. 2d. per cwt. ; of common rice, 2s. 1d. ; and of coarse unhusked paddy, 1s. 0½d. per cwt. The principal village of the State is BONAI GARH, the residence of the Rájá.

Trade, etc.—Small boats ply on the Bráhmañí all the year round, and the bulk of the surplus produce of the country is exported to Sambalpur by this route. A portion, however, is carried to the north on pack-bullocks. Iron is smelted for local use, but is not exported. Gold is found in small quantities in the bed of the Bráhmañí and the hill streams.

The family of the Bonái chief claim a mysterious and foreign origin. They say that they came from Sakaldwíp or Ceylon, and that the founder of the family was abandoned by his mother under a *kadamba* tree. Being on the point of falling into the hands of an enemy, the infant was rescued by a peacock, which swallowed him, and kept him in its craw until the danger was past. In gratitude for this service, the peacock was adopted as the family crest. In reference to their early connection with the *kadamba* tree, they describe themselves as *kadam-bansí* Rájputs. Looking, however, to their position as rulers over powerful Bhuiyá vassals, who hold the bulk of the land, command the militia of the State, and have even the right of conferring the *tlak* or token of investiture on the Chief, there can be little doubt that the Rájá of Bonái was originally the tribal head of the Bhuiyá clan. If Colonel Dalton's theory be correct that the Bhuiyás formed a portion of the army with which Ráma invaded Ceylon, and were, in fact, the veritable apes of the Rámáyaná, it would seem as if the family of the Chief had taken advantage of an ancient legend to conceal their aboriginal ancestry under the fiction of Cinghalese descent.

Bonái Garh.—Residence of the Rájá of Bonái State, Chutiá Nagpur, Bengal. Lat. 21° 49' 8" N., long. 85° 0' 20" E. ; situated on the Bráhmañí river, which surrounds the *garh* or fort on three sides. It is further defended by a high mud-wall and moat. Within this enclosure are about 150 houses, including the palace of the Chief, his court-house and jail. The entire village contains about 300 houses. The site, which is very picturesque, is 505 feet above sea-level.

Bonái Hills.—A series of ranges, rising to a height of 2000 and 3000 feet above the central valley of Bonái State, Chutiá Nagpur, and shutting it in on all sides. With the countless spurs which they throw

off, they occupy a large portion of the State. Most of the hills are densely wooded to the summit, and, except at the regular passes, are inaccessible to beasts of burden. Through the northern mountain barrier separating Bonái from Gángpur State, the Bráhmañí river has forced its way, passing through a glen 8 miles long. The shortest route from Gángpur to Bonái is by a rugged path through this glen, but it is only practicable during the dry weather. Principal peaks—Mánkarmáchá, 3639 feet above sea-level; Bádámgarh, 3525 feet; Kumritár, 3490 feet; Cheliátoka, 3308 feet; and Kondádhar, 3000 feet. Fifteen other peaks are named, each more than 2000 feet in height.

Bondáda.—Village in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency; paying £693 per annum as Government assessment. The estate of Bondáda, consisting of 20 villages, was resumed by Government in A.H. 1864, on account of arrears of revenue.

Bongong.—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BANGAON.

Bonrá.—Marsh in Bográ District, Bengal; locally known as the *bará bil*, or Great Swamp. It is connected with the CHALAN LAKE, in Rájsháhí, one of the largest pieces of water of this kind in Bengal.

Boondee.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* BUNDI.

Borágári.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. $26^{\circ} 0' 15''$ N., long. $89^{\circ} 3' 15''$ E. Chief exports—rice, mustard, jute, and gunny-bags.

Borám.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. $23^{\circ} 22' N.$, long. $86^{\circ} 10' E.$ Chiefly noteworthy on account of the Jain remains in the neighbourhood, on the right bank of the Kásái (Cossye) river, 4 miles south of the town of Jáipur. There are many indications that these remains mark the site of what was at one time a very important place. Amidst heaps of *débris* and ruins stand three fine brick temples, of which the most southerly is the largest. Its tower rises from a base of 26 feet square to a height of (at present) about 60 feet; the upper portion has fallen, but the proportions followed in other temples of the same type, suggest that the original building must have been about one-third higher than the present ruins. The chamber occupies only 9 square feet; the images have been removed. The bricks of which all the temples are made are beautifully fashioned, and appear to have been finished by grinding. In this respect, and in their style of ornament and workmanship, these temples resemble the great Buddhist temple of Buddh Gayá in Behar.

Borásambar.—Estate or *samindári*, formerly belonging to the Eighteen Garhjáts, but now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; situated between $20^{\circ} 43' 15''$ and $21^{\circ} 11' 45''$ N. lat., and between $82^{\circ} 40' 30''$ and $83^{\circ} 27' 45''$ E. long. Area, 841 square miles, nearly half of which is cultivated, the rest being covered by jungle. Number of villages, 405; occupied houses, 11,965; total population

(1881) 65,837; namely, 33,762 males and 32,075 females; average density of population, 78 per square mile. The forests contain abundance of *sál* (*Shorea robusta*), *sáj* (*Pentaptera glabra*), and other useful timber, besides lac, and cocoons of the *tasar* silkworm. Wild beasts are very numerous. In the eastern portion of the estate, a few Kalita and Bráhma families have settled, the former as agriculturists, the latter both as money-lenders and agriculturists. The leading race are the Binjwárs, an aboriginal tribe who eke out an existence as herdsmen and labourers, and by occasional cultivation. Banjáras, or carriers trading in salt and cotton with the east coast, are to be found during the monsoon, the grazing for their herds being excellent. A few Saorás, Kandhs, and Gonds are to be met with. Artisans are very scarce. The chief crop is rice; but the soil is good, and pulses, oil-seeds, cotton, and sugar-cane, when carefully cultivated, have been found to be successful. Iron-ore is found in considerable quantities. The estimated revenue of the estate is about £1480. Tribute paid to Government, £30. The *samindári* was granted by the Gajapatti ruler of Purí, between 1500 and 1600 years ago, to Dasmát Barhea, the founder of the present family. The grant was originally limited to a jungle tract near Borásámbar, but the family have from time to time extended their possessions by annexations from those of neighbouring chieftains, with whom they were constantly at feud.

Borí.—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; on the left bank of the Wana, lying between the Great Southern Road and the railway, about 18 miles from Nágpur. Lat. $20^{\circ} 54' 45''$ N., long. $79^{\circ} 2' 45''$ E. Population (1881) 2849, namely, Hindus, 2562; Muhammadans, 201; Jains, 37; aboriginal tribes, 49. A large portion are employed in weaving cloth dyed of a red-brick colour. In consequence of the durability of the dye, which is ascribed to some property in the waters of the Waná, the cloths of Borí command a high price. The town has a commodious *sardí*, a police station, and a Government school. Some fine groves adorn the northern quarters. Mainá Báí Nimbálkarín, with a garrison of 200 men, successfully held Borí against three raids of the Píndáris.

Boria (or *Adur*).—Seaport in the Chiplun Sub-division, Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency, situated midway between the mouths of the Vásishta and Shástri rivers. Lat. $17^{\circ} 24' N.$, long. $73^{\circ} 13' 15'' E.$ Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—exports, £1700; imports, £3857. The port is protected by the bold and conspicuous headland of Adúr, 360 feet above sea-level, and is a safe anchorage during northerly gales. On the top of the hill overlooking the bay is a station of the Trigonometrical Survey.

Borsad.—Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 218 square miles, containing 1 town and 89 villages. Population

(1881) 143,321, of whom 76,595 are returned as males and 66,726 as females. Of Hindus there are 132,174; of Muhammadans, 8386; and of 'others,' 2761. Owing to the intermixture of Baroda and Cambay villages, the Sub-division is very broken and irregular in shape. Of the total area, 56 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated and unsettled (*mehuds*) villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey returns, consists of 92,901 acres of cultivated land, 2597 acres of cultivable land, 2953 acres of uncultivable waste, and 4389 acres of roads, river-beds, village sites, etc. Alienated lands in Government villages occupy 40,698 acres. Of the 54,800 acres of cultivable Government land, 49,035 acres were under tillage in 1876-77.

The Mahi, the only river in the Sub-division, flows along its southern boundary, and is throughout the whole distance a tidal river. But the shallowness of its channel, its shifting sandbanks, and the force of its tidal wave make it useless for boats. Except in the south, along the banks of the Mahi, the whole Sub-division is a highly-cultivated plain sloping gently westwards, intersected by rich hedgerows, and adorned by groves of magnificent trees. Water-supply good. Net Government assessment, £26,622, or 9s. 8½d. an acre. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 100 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 693.

Borsad.—Chief town of the Borsad Sub-division, Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 24' 30" N., long. 72° 56' 30" E. Population (1881) 12,228, namely, 8049 Hindus, 2790 Muhammadans, 1116 Jains, 266 Christians, and 7 'others.' The town is protected by a double line of fortifications, the outer of which is in disrepair, the inner in fair preservation. These fortifications are modern, having been constructed by Ranguji, a Maráthá leader, who fixed his head-quarters here in 1741. The fort was constantly the scene of fighting till 1748, when, after a siege of five months, the Gáekwár of Baroda captured the town and made Ranguji prisoner. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains a subordinate judge's court, post-office, dispensary, and 3 Government schools. Borsad is also the seat of a Presbyterian mission.

Botád.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 10' N., long. 71° 42' 30" E.; population (1881) 7755, namely, 5678 Hindus, 1292 Muhammadans, and 785 Jains.

Botáwad.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—See **BOTWAD.**

Bowring-Pet (or *Maramatlu*).—Village in Kolár District, Mysore Native State; 10 miles by road south of Kolár. Lat. 12° 59' N., long. 78° 15' E.; population (1881) 1265. Founded in 1864, on the opening of the railway, and named after Mr. Lewin Bowring, then Chief Commissioner. Includes the former villages of Maramathu and Hosin-

gere. Railway station for Kolár or Kolár Road, and head-quarters of the Betmangala *taluk*. Weekly fair attended by 1000 persons.

Boyaráni.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3339, all Hindus.

Bráhmagiri (or *Marendá*).—Range of hills which constitutes a natural barrier for several miles between Coorg and the Wainád *taluk* in the District of Malabár, Madras Presidency; average height, 4500 feet above the sea. Highest peak—Dávasi-betta, 5276 feet. Lat. $11^{\circ} 56' N.$, long. $76^{\circ} 2' E.$ The sides are clothed with forest. Among these hills are the sources of some of the principal tributaries of the Káveri (Cauvery), viz. the Pápanáshi (*sin-destroyer*), Valarpattanám, and the Lakshmantirtha river, which flow towards the east; and the Barapolé, which forces its precipitous course in a north-westerly direction, and through the Perámbádi Pass down to the sea.

Bráhmanábád.—Ruined city in Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. It stood on the old course of the Indus, and was strongly fortified. Outlying suburbs formerly connected it with the cities of Depur and Dalárl,—the former the royal, the latter the official quarter; Bráhmanábád itself being the commercial centre. The ruins of its fortifications measure 4 miles in circumference. Recent excavations prove that the inhabitants had attained to great skill in the arts, for the sculptures, engraved gems, carved ivory, earthenware, and coloured glass, found among the ruins, show both advanced taste and workmanship; while the arrangement and regularity of the streets, and the solid proportions of the buildings, attest great architectural excellence. Legends say that the city was founded prior to the 7th century, and was destroyed by the gods in punishment for the iniquities of 'King Dolora.' History so far confirms this tradition as to make mention of an unjust ruler, by name Dolora Amráni, in the 11th century. That the destruction of the city was as sudden as it was complete, is proved by the discovery of whole households overwhelmed together, men and women at their work, and cattle in their stalls. No marks of conflagration are discernible, nor—since household goods and valuables remain *in situ*—can the ruin of the city be referred to the invasion of an enemy, or desertion by the inhabitants. The legend, therefore, is probably so far correct, that Bráhmanábád was destroyed by natural agency—most probably by the earthquake which about the same date diverted the course of the Indus.

Bráhmanakraka.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Houses, 705. Population (1881) 3284, namely, 3169 Hindus and 115 Muhammadans. Up to 1790 it gave its name to a *taluk* of the District.

Bráhmanbaria.—Sub-division of Tipperah District, Bengal, lying between $23^{\circ} 35' 45''$ and $24^{\circ} 16' 30'' N.$ lat., and between $90^{\circ} 45' 45''$

and $91^{\circ} 22' 15''$ E. long. Area 769 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1394; number of houses, 66,105, of which 64,386 are occupied and 1719 unoccupied. Population (1881) 531,417, namely, Hindus, 234,171; Muhammadans, 297,194; and Buddhists, 52; average density of population, 691 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1.81; persons per village, 381; houses per square mile, 89.3; inmates per occupied house, 8.25. The Sub-division was formed in 1860, and consists of the three *thánds* (police circles) of Kasbá, Gauripurá (or Nabinagar), and Bráhmanbáriá. In 1883, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue and 5 civil courts, a regular police force of 78 officers and men, and a village watch of 873 men.

Bráhmanbáriá.—Town and head-quarters of Bráhmanbáriá Sub-division, in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Titás river. Lat. $23^{\circ} 58'$ N., long. $91^{\circ} 9'$ E.; population (1881) 17,438, of whom 11,976, or 65 per cent., are Hindus, and 5462 Muhammadans; number of males, 8639—females, 8799; municipal income in 1881–82, £476; incidence of municipal taxation, 6½d. per head of population within municipal limits. Considerable trade in rice; lock-up and dispensary.

Bráhmaní.—River of Bengal, formed by the junction of the South Koel and the Sánkh rivers. These rivers meet in Gángpur State, Chutiá Nágpur; and the united stream, assuming the name of Bráhmaní, passes through Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, and the Orissa States of Tálcher and Dhenkánal, and enters Cuttack District near Garh Balrámpur. It then follows a very winding course from west to east, and reaches the Bay of Bengal by two mouths, the Dhámrá estuary and the Maipará river, in $20^{\circ} 46' 45''$ N. lat., and $86^{\circ} 58' 30''$ E. long. The principal branch of the Bráhmaní on its right bank in Cuttack District is the Kimiriá, which takes off opposite Rájendrápur village, and, after mixing its waters with the Gengutí, Kelo, and Birúpá, falls again into the parent stream at Indpur. As it approaches the sea, the Bráhmaní receives as a tributary the KHARSUA, and a short distance above this point its waters unite with those of the BAITARANI, forming the DHAMRA. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sánkh—i.e. the point of origin of the Bráhmaní—is the prettiest spot in Gángpur State, and is said by local tradition to be the scene of the amour of the sage Parásara with the fisherman's daughter, Matsya Gandhá, who became the mother of Vyása, the reputed compiler of the Vedas and the Mahábháráta.

Brahmapuri.—Sub-division or *tahsil* of Chándá District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° and $20^{\circ} 44' 15''$ N. lat., and between $79^{\circ} 27'$ and $80^{\circ} 24'$ E. long. Area, 3321 square miles, comprising 1281 square miles of Government land, and 15 *samindári* estates, with a total area of 2049 square miles; number of villages, 1262; number

of houses, 61,234, of which 57,965 are occupied, and 3269 unoccupied; population (1881) 257,205, namely, 129,020 males and 128,185 females; average density of population, 77·45 per square mile. Total Government land revenue, including cesses, £9789; total rental paid by cultivators, £17,363, or an average of 1s. 6d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police stations (*thánds*) 3, with 6 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 94 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 201.

Brahmapurí.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Brahmapurí *tahsil*. Population (1881) 4818, namely, Hindus, 4272; Muhammadans, 307; and aboriginal tribes, 239. The town is prettily situated on undulating rocky ground, surrounded with picturesque groves. In the highest part is an old fort, the walls of which have been levelled, and on their site stand the court-house, school, and police station. Manufacture of fine cotton cloth and thread, excellent brass and copper utensils, and good bullock-carts. Post-office and dispensary.

Brahmaputra (literally, 'The Son of Brahma or God').—A river of Tibet and North-Eastern India, flowing through the Provinces of Assam and Bengal, which, for its size and utility to man, ranks among the most important in the world. Its total estimated length is about 1800 miles, and its drainage area about 361,200 square miles. In its upper portion in Tibet, it is supposed to take its rise from a small lake on the south-eastern base of the sacred Kailás hill, on the opposite side of the same water-parting in which two other of the great rivers of India—the Sutlej and the Indus—also take their rise. The source of the Brahmaputra, or Sanpu, as it is called in Tibetan territory, is in about latitude 31° 30' N., and longitude 82° E., in the vicinity of the great lakes of Mánasarowar and Long-cho or Rakhas Tál, in the Hundes country. It flows eastwards down the Sanpu valley, passing not far to the north of Lhassa, the religious capital of Tibet; and about 800 miles of its course are spent in the hollow trough north of the main Himálayan range. After receiving several tributaries from the confines of the Chinese Empire, the river twists round a lofty eastern range of the Himálayas; and after leaving Tibet, flows through an unexplored and unknown country, inhabited by rude and savage tribes, until it apparently emerges as the Dihang or Dihong in the north-east corner of Assam, and enters British territory under that name.

The connection of the Dihang with the Sanpu has not yet been determined by actual exploration, but it is now generally agreed that the two are different sections of the same stream; although D'Anville, Drymple, and certain French geographers were disposed to regard the Sanpu as the upper channel of the Irawadi, or great river of Burma.

This view is also taken by a recent writer, Mr. R. Gordon, C.E., in an exhaustive Report on the '*Hydrography and Hydraulics of the Irawadi*.' Our ignorance of the geography of this interesting region may be assigned to a variety of causes. It is inhabited by savage tribes, who are sufficiently under the influence of Tibet to resist all advances on the part of Europeans, and who have ere now murdered adventurous travellers. It is also an exceedingly difficult country to traverse, being obstructed by rocky precipices and narrow chasms, where none but the practised mountaineer can make his way. There is little hope of a trade route in this direction between India and China. A recent survey in the cold weather of 1878, under the direction of the late Captain Harman, R.E., followed the Sanpu considerably to the east of the portion previously explored, and lower down in the course of the river, bringing the survey down to Gyala Sindong, a fort situated within 100 miles of the highest point reached in the survey of the Dihang river from the Assam side. Captain Harman's survey has strengthened the hypothesis that the Dihang is the continuation of the Tibetan Sanpu. This, however, must remain an hypothesis until further explorations are made, or logs of timber can be floated down from Gyala Sindong into the Dihang. If it could be arranged that a number of logs, specially marked, were floated down from Gyala Sindong, and that these logs were found to emerge in the Assam valley, the question whether the Sanpu eventually enters the Brahmaputra or the Irawadi would be conclusively disposed of, even without further surveys.

The Dihing, shortly after debouching upon the Assam valley, is joined by the waters of the Dibang and the Brahmaputra of the Hindus (known as the Táluka in the upper portion of its course), which issue from the Abar and Mishmi hills, in latitude $27^{\circ} 70' N.$, and longitude $95^{\circ} 30' E.$, about 24 miles west of Sadiyá. Each of these brings down a large volume of water. The Táluka, though apparently the smallest of the three streams, has been selected by Hindu tradition as the headwaters of the sacred river. Just below the rapids which it forms on debouching from the mountains, there is a large and deep pool called the Brahmakund, the resort of pilgrims from the farthest corners of the Indian peninsula. From the point of confluence of the three rivers, the united stream takes its well-known name of Brahmaputra, literally the Son of Brahma, the Creator. Its summer discharge at Goalpára, at the Bengal end of the Assam valley, has been computed at 146,188 cubic feet per second. This calculation, which was made over 40 years ago, appears from later inquiries to be an under-estimate. During the cold season of 1877-78, experiments were made by the late Captain Harman, of the Survey Department, for the purpose of calculating the discharges of the Brahmaputra and its tributary, the Subánsiri, at the upper end of the valley near Dibrugarh. The result

of these operations was a discharge from the former river, at the mean low water level of the year, of 116,484 cubic feet per second, and for the latter of 16,945 cubic feet, giving a total for both of 133,060 cubic feet, or only 13,128 cubic feet less than the formerly computed discharge* at Goálpára, about 300 miles lower down the valley, after the river has been joined by several large tributary streams. During the rains the river rises 30 or 40 feet above its ordinary level, and its flood discharge at Goálpára is estimated at over 500,000 cubic feet per second.

The united stream forming the Brahmaputra at once assumes in the valley of Assam the characteristics by which it is generally known. It rolls along through the plain with a vast expanse of water, broken by innumerable islands, and exhibiting the operations of alluvion and diluvion on a gigantic scale. It is so heavily freighted with silt from the *Himálayas*, that the least impediment in its stream causes a deposit, and may give rise to a wide-spreading almond-shaped mud-bank. Steamers anchoring near the margin for the night are sometimes found aground next morning on an accumulation of silt caused by their own obstruction to the current. On either side, the great river throws out large branches, which rejoin the main channel after a divergence of many miles. The most important of these divergent channels is the Lohit, which takes off from the main stream, under the name of the Kherkutia Suti, opposite Buri Dihing-Mukh. It receives the great volume of the Subansiri, and is then called the Lohit; but it seems probable that this is merely an alternative name for the Brahmaputra. The Lohit, thus reinforced, rejoins the main stream nearly opposite Dhansiri-Mukh, and the great island *char* of Májuli, with an area of 441 square miles, is enclosed between it and the main stream. Another large divergent channel of the Brahmaputra is the Kalang, which takes off from the south bank opposite Bishnáth in Darrang District, and traverses the whole of Nowgong District west of that point, rejoining the Brahmaputra, after a very tortuous course, a short distance above Gauhati town.

Unlike many rivers that flow through flat low-lying plains, instead of creeping along in a sluggish channel, the Brahmaputra in the Assam valley has a comparatively swift current, and possesses no high permanent banks. At certain points in its course, it passes between or by rocky eminences, which give a temporary fixity to its channel, as at Bishnáth, Silghát, Tezpur, Singri-parbat, Gauhati, Háthimora, Goálpára, and Dhubri. Where not so controlled, it sends its shifting channels over a vast extent of country, without forming any single continuous river trough.

After a course of 450 miles south-west down the Assam valley, the Brahmaputra sweeps southward round the spurs of the Gáo Hills, which form the outwork of the watershed separating the Brahmaputra of Assam from the Sylhet river system of the Bárák. Its southerly

course continues thence for about 180 miles, under the name of the Jamuná, through the open plains of Eastern Bengal, as far as its confluence with the Padmá, or main stream of the Ganges, at Goálandá, in latitude $23^{\circ} 50' N.$, and longitude $89^{\circ} 46' E.$ From that point, the conjoint deltas of these two rivers may be said to commence. The great bulk of the waters of the Brahmaputra flow towards the south-west; but before they reach the sea, they receive the drainage, by way of the Surmá valley, of the eastern watershed between Bengal and Burmá. That drainage collects into the Meghná river (*q.v.*), itself a broad and magnificent sheet of water.

Shortly after leaving Assam, what is now the chief channel of the Brahmaputra takes the name of the Jamuná—an alteration of nomenclature representing a mighty change in the course of the river within the last hundred years. The old bed of the Brahmaputra, the only one recognised by Major Rennel in 1765, lies to the east, and still brings down a portion of the parent stream—retaining the original name—past Nasrábád, the civil station of Maimansingh District. It reunites with the Jamuna or larger body of the Brahmaputra by means of the Meghná. In fact, the entire lower portion of the Brahmaputra may be described as an elaborate network of interlacing channels, many of which run dry in the cold season, but are filled to overflowing during the annual period of inundation. Numerous islands are formed by the river during its course, one of them, the Májuli *char* in the Assam District of Sibságar, covering an area of 441 square miles, and mainly formed by the silt brought down by the Sulánsirí; others are mere sandbanks deposited during one rainy season, only to be swept away by the inundations of the following year. The only towns of importance situated on the banks of the main river, are Gauháti, Goálpára, and Dibrugarh; but there are numerous trading marts or river-side depôts for produce, the principal of which are enumerated below. The more important tributaries of the Brahmaputra proceeding down stream, and excluding the three headwaters already mentioned as uniting to form the main river near Sadiyá, are—the Subánsirí, Bhorolí, Manás, Gadádhar or Sankos, Dharla, and Tístá on the right bank; and the Noá Dihing, Burí Dihing, Disang, Dikhu, Dhansirí, and Kalang, with its tributary the Kápílí, on the left bank,—for an account of each of which see the separate articles under their alphabetical headings. All these rivers are navigable by large-sized cargo boats, and many of them are open to steamers during the rainy season.

In its agricultural and commercial utility, the Brahmaputra ranks after the Ganges, and equal with the Indus, among the rivers of India. Unlike these two rivers, however, its waters are not largely utilized for the purpose of artificial irrigation, nor are they confined within embankments. The natural overflow of the periodic inundation

is sufficient to supply a soil which receives in addition a heavy rainfall; and this natural overflow is allowed to find its own lines of drainage. The plains of Eastern Bengal, watered by the Brahmaputra, yield abundant crops of rice, jute, and mustard, year after year, without undergoing any visible exhaustion; the valley of Assam is not less fertile, although scantily populated, and by a less industrious race. The Brahmaputra itself is navigable by steamers as high up as Dibrugarh, about 800 miles from the sea; and in its lower reaches its broad surface is covered with country craft of all sizes and rigs, down to dug-out canoes and timber rafts. It is remarkable, however, that comparatively little boat traffic is carried on the Brahmaputra within the Assam valley. Goálpára is the great emporium of the boat trade, and Gauháti is ordinarily the extreme point reached by boats of large burthen. Higher up they are almost unknown, and the only craft, except steamers, to be seen on the river are mere dug-outs. All the boats which resort to Goálpára and Gauháti come from Bengal.

The largest emporium of trade on the river is Sirájganj (*q.v.*), in the Bengal District of Pabná, where the agricultural produce of the surrounding country is collected for transmission to Calcutta. The downward traffic consists chiefly of tea, oil-seeds, caoutchouc, and raw cotton from Assam; and jute, oil-seeds, tobacco, rice, and other food-grains from Eastern Bengal. The imports up-stream are European piece-goods, salt, hardware, rice, tea-seed, liquors, etc. Two river steam companies, the India General Steam Navigation Company, and the River Steam Navigation Company, have for several years past kept up a weekly line of steamers, running from Calcutta to Dibrugarh and back. The advertised time-tables give 25 days for the up, and 20 for the down journey, but these dates are not very accurately kept. Nine days on both the up and down journeys are occupied between Calcutta and Goálandá. But the latter place, being connected with Calcutta by the Eastern Bengal Railway, is virtually the starting-point for the up, and the terminus for the down journey, both for passengers and for a considerable portion of the cargo. Besides these two steamer lines, the Assam Railways and Trading Company was established in 1881 to work a coal, timber, and petroleum concession, and to construct a railway in Lakhimpur District. It runs steamers between Dibrugarh and Calcutta, but as yet (1883) not at regular dates. A special daily steamer service for Assam, from the terminus of the Kaunia branch of the Northern Bengal Railway system at Dhubrí to Dibrugarh, has been organized under contract with the local Government by Messrs. Macneil & Co., a large Calcutta firm; and steamers commenced running about the middle of 1883. The upward voyage from Dhubrí to Dibrugarh occupies 4, and the downward 3 days. The principal dépôts and trading marts, which are also stopping-places for steamers on the

Brahmaputra, are as follow, proceeding down stream :—Dibrugarh; Dihing-mukh; Disang-mukh or Dikhu-mukh, for Sibságar; Kokila-mukh, for Jorhát and North Lakhimpur; Nigriting, for Golághát; Dhansiri-mukh; Bishnáth; Kaliabar or Silghát, for Nowgong; Tezpur; Rángamati, for Mangaldai; Gauhátí; Goálpará; and Dhubrí. These are all in the Assam valley. The Bengal stations are Kálíganj, Siráj-ganj, Barisál, and Nálchiti. Steamers do not always call at all the above stations; and there are a few minor places where they stop when specially required.

Bráhuís, The.—The inhabitants of the highlands of Balúchistán, whose ruler is the Khán of Khelát. Masson states that the word Bráhuí is a corruption of *Ba-roh-i*, meaning literally 'of the hills or waste,' and that the race entered Balúchistán originally from the west. Dr. Caldwell supposes them to be a Dravidian race, and one of their tribes claims to have come from the shores of the Mediterranean. Their language, which is known as Bráhuiki, is altogether void of affinity with the Persian, Pushtu, or Balúchí. It contains a Dravidian element, derived perhaps from some of their first tribes, or offshoots of other races, being engrafted on a stock akin to that which peopled Southern India. The discovery of this element beyond the Indus river indicates that some of the Dravidians, like the Aryans, the Scythians, and the Turco-Mongolians, entered India by the north-west route. The Bráhuís themselves believe and state that they are the aborigines of the country which they now occupy, and that their forefathers came from Halb and Aleppo. Dr. Cook believes that the Bráhuís were Tartar mountaineers, who settled at a very early period in the southern parts of Asia, where they led an ambulatory life in *khels*, or societies, headed and governed by their own chiefs and laws till at length they attained a footing in Balúchistán, ultimately supplanting the former inhabitants, whom he supposes to have been of Hindu origin. Pottinger states that their language contains many ancient Hindu words, and he believes that it belongs either to the Scythic, or Turanian, or Tamilian stock. The Sakæ who formed part of Alexander's army, and whose country is stated by Wilson to have been that lying between the Paropamisus mountains and the Sea of Aral, are said to still exist as a tribe of the Bráhuís of Jháláwán. It is not improbable that they accompanied Alexander as far as the south of Sind, and returning with Craterus up or through the Múla pass, settled in their present position.

The Bráhuís are most numerous in the provinces of Jháláwár and Sáráwár, and the number of their tribal divisions is great. Pottinger gives the names of no fewer than seventy-four, each division being ruled by its own *Wahdera* or chief. They are as a race essentially nomadic, and reside in *tománs*, or collections of tents made of goat's-hair, black or striped. The furniture of the ordinary tent usually consists of a few

metal cooking-pots, a stone hand-mill, some rough carpets or rugs, a distaff for spinning wool, and a pipe or *hukka*. A chief's tent may be a little better furnished, and he is generally richer than his neighbours in flocks and herds. Dissensions are common, but the Bráhui tribes are on the whole more compact and united than those of Afghánistán. They are Sunní Muhammadans of the Hánbeli sect, but not fanatical; nor have they any religious men, whether Sayyad, *pir*, *mulla*, or *fakir*. They consider themselves peculiarly favoured Muhammadans, as the Prophet, mounted on a dove, paid them a visit one night, and left a number of saints behind him for their guidance. Forty of these lie buried under a mountain, called Chihal Tau, or the 'Mountain of Forty Bodies,' to the north of Balúchistán, a place held sacred and visited not only by Muhammadans of other tribes, but by the Hindus also.

In appearance, Bráhuís are easily distinguishable from Patháns, and also from their Balúch fellow-subjects. They are smaller and sparer than the inhabitants of Afghánistán, and their features are often blunt and irregular. Their faces perhaps show more intelligence than the Pathán physiognomy. Their hair and beards are frequently brown. They have great physical strength, and are hardier than the Balúchis. They tolerate the scorching sun of Kach-Gandáva, equally with the cold and frost of their own mountains. They are good workers, many of them in the plains to the south of Khelát being agricultural labourers. The activity and endurance of the Bráhuís is far superior to that of the inhabitants of Southern Afghánistán, to whom they are not inferior in courage; and though as avaricious as the Patháns, they are less revengeful, less quarrelsome, and more trustworthy. They do not possess the wild chivalry which distinguishes the Balúchi, but they have none of the cold-blooded treachery of the Afghán race. They are keen hunters, and almost without exception good shots. The Jháláwárs claim to excel in the use of firearms, while the Sáráwárs are superior with the sword. The Bráhui chiefs have considerable power; and their women are but slightly, if at all, secluded.

The ordinary dress of the Bráhuís is the same for summer or winter. It is made up of a tunic or shirt, generally ornamented with a little red embroidery; trousers often gathered in about the ankle, but without any resemblance to the extravagantly wide pantaloons among Patháns; and a brown greatcoat or cloak, usually of felt. A *kammar-band* is worn round the waist. The head-dress is a round or pointed skull-cap, without a *pagri* or turban, but with a small tassel, tuft, or button affixed to the centre of the crown, those of the higher classes being elaborately ornamented with gold thread. A few wear turbans. Square-toed *chappals*, or sandals of deer or goat skin, are worn by all classes. Their arms are a matchlock, sword, and shield; pistols are carried by the

well-to-do, and the wealthy have rifles. The Afghán knife is unknown, and for the spear they profess contempt.

Bráhuís are not averse to military service, and there are a few in the so-called Balúch regiments (27th, 29th, and 30th Bombay Native Infantry); but as enlistment in the British Bombay service is practically for life, the best men hold aloof.

The representative of the Bráhuís in politics is the Khán of Khelát, himself a Bráhuí, and a lineal descendant of Kumbar, the head of one of their chief tribes, the Kumbarání. This tribe is divided into three distinct ranks, namely, the Ahmadzáís, the Khání, and the Kumbarání. The Kumbaránís only partially intermarry with the other two, *i.e.* they receive wives from them, but not husbands.

Brindában.—Town and municipality in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the right bank of the Jumna, in a peninsula formed by a northward bend of the river, 6 miles north of Muttra. Lat. $27^{\circ} 23' 20''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 44' 10''$ E. Population (1881) 21,467, namely, 20,629 Hindus, 794 Muhammadans, 32 Jains, and 12 Christians; area of town site, 486 acres. Municipal revenue in 1881-82, £2085, of which £1828 was derived from octroi, or an average of 1s. 8½d. per head of municipal population (21,467). Brindában ranks amongst the holiest cities of the Hindus, and contains a large number of temples, shrines, and sacred sites. Among the most noticeable may be mentioned the temple of Gobind Deva, erected in 1590 by Rájá Mán Singh of Ambar, governor of Kábul and Behar under Akbar, which was originally capped with five towers, all now destroyed. Government has recently repaired the temple at a cost of about £3400, and in 1883 a further sum was devoted to the same purpose. Among the other principal shrines are the temple of Madan Mohan, a form of Krishna, on the river bank, at the upper end of the town; that of Gopináth, built by Ráesili-Ji about 1580; and the great temple of the Seths, dedicated to Rang-Ji, and constructed between 1845 and 1851 at a cost of 45 *lákhs* of rupees (say, £450,000). Handsome *gháts* or flights of stone bathing-steps line the bank of the Jumna; and above, the temples and houses rise picturesquely with decorated façades. The Khusal-bagh is a picturesque garden surrounded with a masonry wall, and is situated close to the town. Ahaliya Báí, the Maráthá queen of Indore, built a large well of red sandstone, with 57 steps leading down to the water's edge. Two other tanks, known as the Brahma-Kúnd and the Govind-Kúnd, possess great sanctity for Hindus. Many private houses are built of hewn sandstone. Anglo-vernacular school, and dispensary. Brindában is one of the great places of pilgrimage of India, and is annually resorted to by thousands of Híndus from the most distant provinces. It is now easily reached

by the branch line from the East India Railway to Muttra city, only 6 miles from Brindában.

Broach (*Bharuch*).—British District in the Northern Division of the Bombay Presidency, lying between $21^{\circ} 26'$ and $22^{\circ} 5' N.$ lat., and between $72^{\circ} 34'$ and $73^{\circ} 12' E.$ long.; area, 1453 square miles; population according to the Census of 1881, 326,930 souls. The District is bounded on the north by the river Máhi, which separates it from the territory of Cambay; on the east and south-east by the Native States of Baroda and Rájpipla; on the south by the river Kim, which separates it from Surat District. To the west lies the Gulf of Cambay, along the shore of which the District stretches for a distance of 54 miles. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 405. Land revenue (1880–81) £224,278; total revenue (gross) £253,581.

Physical Features.—The District forms an alluvial plain 54 miles in length, sloping gently westwards to the shores of the Gulf of Cambay (Khambhát), and varying in breadth from 20 to 40 miles. With the exception of a few hillocks of sand-drift along the line of coast, and some mounds in the neighbourhood of Broach city, the level of the plain is unbroken by any rising ground. The Máhi and Kim—the former a river of 300 miles in length, with a drainage area estimated at from 15,000 to 17,000 square miles; and the latter with a course of 70 miles and a drainage area of about 700 square miles—form respectively the northern and southern boundaries of the District. Between these limits are two other rivers which discharge their waters through the Broach plain into the Gulf of Cambay—the Dhádhar about 20 miles south of the Máhi, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda) between the Dhádhar and the Kim. The Dhádhar passes through the Broach plain for 24 miles, or about one-third of the entire length of its course; and the Narbadá, with a total length of between 700 and 800 miles, and a drainage area estimated at about 36,400 square miles, flows for the last 70 miles of its course through the District, gradually widening into an estuary, whose shores when they fall away into the Gulf of Cambay are more than 13 miles apart. The water of these rivers is not made use of for irrigation; and though each has a tidal estuary extending for several miles inland, none of them, except the Narbadá, and for a short distance the Dhádhar, is serviceable for purposes of navigation. Owing to the height of the banks of its rivers, the District is, for drainage purposes, to a great extent dependent on creeks or backwaters running inland, either directly from the coast-line or from the banks of rivers at points in their course below the limit of tidal influence. Of the salt-water creeks or backwaters, the three most important are the Mota, breaking off from the Dhádhar river about 6 miles west of the town of Amod; the Bhúkhi, running inland from the right bank of the Narbadá, about 15 miles west of the town of Broach; and the Wand,

an inlet from the shore of the Gulf of Cambay, about 8 miles north of the mouth of the Kim river.

The surface of the plain consists, over almost its entire area, of black cotton soil, highly fertile and well cultivated. This black soil covers deposits of brown clay, containing nodular limestone above and gravel and sand underneath. Within 30 miles of the coast hardly any rocks are to be seen. Farther inland, the gravels and clays of the nummulitic series begin to appear, and in the south of the District trap crops out. Conglomerate and limestone are also found in this tract, but otherwise the plain of Broach contains no minerals. Except for a tract of waste land 161 acres in extent, lately set apart for the growth of *babul* trees (*Acacia*), the District is without forests; and only in the few villages where the lighter varieties of soil are found is the plain well covered with trees. The Palmyra palm is the only liquor-yielding tree of the District, and it is largely found south of the Narbadá. Of the fruit-trees are the mango, guava, and tamarind. On an island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda), about 12 miles above Broach, is a famous *banian* or *bar* (*Ficus Indicus*) tree, known as the *Kabir bar*, because, as the story goes, it sprang from a twig which the sage Kabir once used for cleaning his teeth. About the year 1780, this tree is said to have had 350 large and over 3000 small stems, the principal of which enclosed a space nearly 2000 feet in circumference; in the march of an army this tree had been known to have sheltered 7000 men. Nearly 50 years later (April 1825) Bishop Heber wrote of this tree, 'Though a considerable part of the tree has within the last few years been washed away, enough remains to make it one of the most noble groves in the world.' Since then it has suffered much from age and floods, and is now little more than a ruin.

The domestic animals are cows, buffaloes, oxen, camels, horses, asses, sheep, and goats. The cattle of the District are of two breeds—the small indigenous bullock, and the large ox of Northern Gujarát. The smaller breed of bullocks, which are generally driven in riding carts, are worth from £6 to £12 a pair; the larger sort, used for ploughing, are worth from £15 to £20. Well-to-do cultivators pay much attention to the appearance and condition of their cattle. Cultivation is too general to allow much scope for wild animals. The hog, wolf, and antelope almost exhaust the list. Of birds, the chief are the floriken, sand grouse, partridge, quail, duck, snipe, and crane. The District is well supplied with fish—fresh-water, salt-water, and migratory.

Population.—The earliest year for which an estimate of the population is available is 1820, when the number of inhabitants was returned at 229,527, or 173 to the square mile. In 1851, the number was 290,984, or 200 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 gave a total population of 350,322 persons, or 257·97 to the square mile.

The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 326,930, or 225 to the square mile; of these the males numbered 168,482, the females 158,448; occupying 13,588 houses in 4 towns and 58,647 houses in 401 villages. The number of unoccupied houses was returned at 19,457. Classified according to religion, there were 115,542 male and 107,296 female Hindus: total, 222,838; 34,280 male and 32,968 female Muhammadans: total, 67,248; Christians, 115; Jains, 3768; Jews, 18; Pársís, 3042; Buddhists, 2; Brahmos, 3; and aborigines, 29,896. Under the term Hindu are included Bráhmans, who numbered 13,161; Rájputs, 16,710; Chamárs, 3417; Darjis and Shimpís, 1964; Dhobís, 1094; Dublás, 18,037; Barbers, 3577; Kanbís, 27,142; Kolís, 52,500; Kumbhars, 4451; Lohanás, 918; Lohárs, or blacksmiths, 1690; Málís, or gardeners, 401; Mahár and Dhers, 15,553; Sonárs, or goldsmiths, 2181; Sutárs, or carpenters, 2320; Telís, or oilmen, 3380. The aborigines are almost entirely Bhíls. The agricultural population was returned at 190,443, or 58.25 per cent. of the total, of which 128,776, or 39.4 per cent., were workers.

The practice of separating into small distinct classes has in Broach been carried so far that, in a Hindu population of 222,838 persons, there are representatives of 142 distinct castes, which are again split up into numerous sub-divisions. Among Musalmáns there are two classes distinct in origin, though now considerably mixed by intermarriage—Muhammadan immigrants, and converts to Islám. These comprise four classes, Sayyid, Mughal, Pathán, and Shaikh, with a total population of 67,248 persons. Of the Musalmáns whose origin is traced to Hindu converts, the most important are the Borahs (Boharás), who include two main classes, distinct from each other in occupation and in sect, one engaged in trade, and who are mostly Ismáli Shiás, the other employed almost entirely in tilling the fields, belonging to the Sunní sect, and forming nearly half of the entire Musalmán population of the District. For other classes of converted Hindus—the Mole-saláms (formerly Rájputs), the Máleks, the Momnás, and the Shekhs—no separate figures are available. With the exception of the Borahs, who are a well-to-do body, the Broach Musalmáns are for the most part in a depressed condition. Besides the above classes, there is among the orthodox Musalmáns of Broach a peculiar community called Nagorís, who have long been settled in the District. They are said to derive their name from their former home, Nagor, a town in Málwá; they are now carters and labourers.

The chief agricultural classes of Broach District are Kanbís, Rájputs, Kachchhís, Málís, and Kolís; the trading classes are Vaishnava Baniyás, as well as Saráwaks or Jains, Borahs of the Shiá sect, and Pársís. The cultivating Borahs are a hard-working and intelligent but somewhat turbulent body of men. In language and

habits they resemble the Kanbís and other Hindus, but are distinguishable by their beard as well as by a peculiar cast of countenance. While professing the faith of Islám, they do not intermarry with other Musalmáns. The Kanbís, as peaceable as they are industrious, form the most respectable part of the rural population ; they are well acquainted with the qualities and powers of all varieties of the soil. The Rájputs afford an instance of a complete change from the fierceness and turbulence of a martial class, to the quietness, obedience, and industry of tillers of the soil. The Kolís, who stand lower in the social scale than the Kanbís, formerly bore a bad reputation as plunderers, but they are now a reformed race. In many villages they are as steady and hard-working cultivators as any in the District. A few Pársís are engaged in agriculture, and are said to be active and skilful husbandmen. Most of the members of this class deal in merchandize, and together with the Saráwaks form the two most wealthy sections of the trading community. The Census Report of 1881 returned the male population according to occupation under the following six main headings : (1) Professional class, including civil and military, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 8450 ; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 2693 ; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3973 ; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 71,420 ; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 63,732 ; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 168,482.

Of the whole population, about 20 per cent. live in towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants. Originally the towns were walled, and each was provided with its own fort. Within the circuit of the walls lived the richest part of the people, dwelling in well-built houses ; without were the poorer classes, lodged chiefly in hovels. Though the fortifications have now been allowed to fall into decay, a marked distinction still remains between the town proper and its suburbs. The villages have in general a thriving appearance, arising from the common use of tiles for the houses instead of thatch ; and the trees with which they are surrounded contribute to give a pleasing effect. The respectable inhabitants have their houses together in courts or closes, with an entrance common to all the families who belong to the same close, which is shut at night for the protection of the cattle. Formerly many of the villages were surrounded by walls of mud or burnt brick as a shelter against the attacks of freebooters, but now only one village remains walled, and its fortifications are said to be broken down in many places. Exclusive of 14 hamlets, there were, in 1881, 405 inhabited towns and villages, giving an average of 0·29 village to each square mile, and 807·23 inhabitants to each village. Of these 405 towns and

villages, 14 contained less than one hundred inhabitants; 32 from one to two hundred; 161 from two to five hundred; 129 from five hundred to a thousand; 50 from one to two thousand; 11 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; 2 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and one from twenty to fifty thousand inhabitants.

In 1881, the total number of houses was 91,692, or an average of 63·10 per square mile. Of these, about one-fourth were built of stone or fire-baked brick, and roofed with tile. The remainder had outer walls of mud or sun-dried brick, and thatched roofs. A well-to-do trader's house generally contains furniture worth altogether about £47. Of this amount, cots, cupboards, couches, boxes, carpets, quilts, and mattresses represent about £27, and cooking pots about £20. A well-to-do cultivator owns one or two strong wooden boxes, wooden bedsteads and flock coverlets, worth altogether about £14, besides cooking pots worth £10. An artisan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, two or three beds, cooking and drinking pots, worth altogether about £2, 8s. A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars and one or two mattresses, worth about a shilling or two.

Trade Guilds.—The trade guilds of Broach include the leading capitalists of the city, the bankers and money-changers, cotton dealers, agents, and those engaged in the business of insurance; other unions represent the smaller trades, and are conducted on the *panchayat* system common throughout India. Details of the constitution and objects of these associations are given in the article on the District of AHMADABAD, where the system is more fully developed than in Broach. One of the main sources of revenue of the chief guild of Broach city is a tax of from 6d. to 1s. per bale levied by the managers on cotton. Except in the case of cotton bills, there is also a charge of ¾d. on every bill of exchange negotiated. The receipts from these taxes are applied to Hindu objects of charity and religion. The chief institution maintained is the hospital (*pānjrāpol*) for old and sick animals, supported at a yearly cost of about £530. In addition to fees and fines levied upon members for breaches of trade rules, some of the guilds adopt special means for collecting funds. Money-changers, grain-dealers, grocers, and tobacco merchants, make the observance of their trade holidays—the 2nd, the 11th, and the last day of each fortnight—a source of revenue to the general body. On the occasion of these holidays, only one shop is allowed to remain open in each market. The right to open this shop is put up to auction, and the amount of the bid is kept for caste purposes. Similarly the bankers, cotton dealers, insurers, and bricklayers have, for trade purposes, imposed a tax on the members of their craft or calling. In the case of other classes, the necessary sums are collected by subscription among the members of the caste.

Village Officials.—At the time of the introduction of British rule (1803), there was in many villages an association of members of the proprietary body, by which the amount of the State demand was distributed according to a fixed proportion among the members. The peculiarities of this joint and sharehold tenure (*bhāgdāri*) have to some extent disappeared before the system of collecting the revenue direct from the different shareholders; but in most places the village organization still remains tolerably complete. The staff of village servants includes as a rule the head-man, *pātel*; the clerk, *talāti*; the family priest, *ghāmot*; the potter, *kumbhār*; the barber, *hajjām*; the carpenter, *sutār*; the blacksmith, *lohār*; the tailor, *darzi*; the shoemaker, *mochi*; the washerman, *dhobi*; the tanner, *khālpā*; the sweeper, *dher*; the scavenger, *bhangī*; the watchman, *wartania* or *rakha*. Besides this establishment, in some villages are to be found the water-drawer, *kosia*; the water-supplier, *parabio*; goldsmith, *sonī* or *sonār*; singer, *bārot* or *bhāt*; teacher, *ākhūn*; physician, *baidya*; astronomer, *joshi*; strolling players, *bhavāyā*; Hindu devotees, *gosāin* or *bairāgi*; and Musalmān devotees, *fakīr*. The head-men retain to the present day much of their former influence. They are in many cases rich, and possess a strong hold over the villagers by reason of their business as money-lenders.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Broach District contains a total area of 1453 square miles or 933,764 acres, of which 193,886 acres, or 20·76 per cent., are alienated, and 243,556 acres, or 26·08 per cent., are uncultivable waste, including the area of village sites, roads, rivers, reservoirs, and the tracts of salt land liable to be flooded at specially high tides. The total area of State cultivable assessed land is therefore 496,322 acres, of which 463,475, or 93·38 per cent., were occupied in 1880–81, and 32,847, or 6·62 per cent., were unoccupied or lying waste. About 2633 acres of salt land have been taken up by private individuals for reclamation. These lands have been leased by Government on special conditions, rent free for the first ten years, and for the following twenty years at rents varying from 6d. to 1s. per acre, to be subject to the usual assessment rates after thirty years. The land is for agricultural purposes divided into two main classes, light soils and black soils; the former compose about one-fourth, and the latter three-fourths of the entire area. There is also a rich alluvial deposit known as *bhāthā*, in which products of all kinds, especially tobacco and castor-oil plants, are raised. The holders of land belong to two classes—proprietors of large estates or *thākurs*, and peasant proprietors or *rāyats*. Of the total assessed area, 47,017 acres, or 6·81 per cent., are in the possession of men belonging to the landlord class, who are the heirs of old Rājput families. A peasant proprietor is either a member of a cultivating community, or an independent holder with an individual interest in the land he tills. Of the

whole number of villages in the District, the lands of 244, or 59·51 per cent., were in 1862 held by corporations of shareholders, and the remaining 166 villages, or 48·49 per cent., by individual cultivators. Of the whole area of the Government land, 457,806 acres, or 92·24 per cent., are held under the ordinary survey tenure for a term of thirty years, at rates subject to revision. The land alienated by the State is held at a fixed quit-rent. The assessment and quit-rent paid and payable to the State amounts to £226,629; the local cess, to £17,510: total, £244,139.

There are two harvests in the year, (1) the early or *khariḥ*, and (2) the late or *rabi*. The early crops are sown in June, and, except cotton, which is seldom ready for picking before February, are harvested in October and November. The late crops are sown in October, and reaped in February. A field of black soil requires only one ploughing, and is seldom manured. Light soils, on the other hand, are ploughed three or four times, and are generally manured. The entire set of implements used on a farm may be valued at from £1, 10s. to £2. The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State or *khālsā* villages in 1880-81 numbered 26,228 ploughs, 18,489 carts, 59,326 bullocks, 47,676 buffaloes, 13,430 cows, 770 horses, 1182 mares, 611 foals, 20,420 sheep and goats, and 1171 asses. Of 463,475 acres of Government land occupied in the year 1880-81, 65,026 acres, or 13·90 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the 399,063 acres under actual cultivation in 1880-81, grain crops occupied 185,713 acres, or 46·5 per cent.; pulses, 36,177 acres, or 9·1 per cent.; tobacco, 1499 acres, or 0·3 per cent.; sugar-cane, 139 acres; indigo, 232 acres; oil-seeds, 10,460 acres, or 2·7 per cent.; cotton, 162,979 acres, or 40·9 per cent.; miscellaneous crops, 1864 acres, or 0·4 per cent. Since the year 1812, attempts have been made from time to time to improve the cultivation and preparation of cotton. So far, the result has been to show that foreign varieties will not thrive in the District. In the matter of ginning considerable improvements have been made. By the introduction of the Platt Macarthy Rolley Gin in 1864, the old native hand-gin (*charkha*) has been entirely supplanted.

The years 1630, 1631, and 1755 are said to have been seasons of scarcity in which, owing to the failure of crops, remissions of revenue were granted. In 1760, 1761, 1773, 1786, and 1787, portions of the District verged so closely upon famine that the revenue had to be very largely remitted. The great famine of 1790 was caused by the entire failure of the ordinary rainfall. Since the beginning of the present century, six years of scarcity, amounting almost to famine, are recorded. The year 1819 was marked by excessive rainfall, and 1838, 1840, and 1868 by total or partial failure of rain. In 1812, the District suffered from the ravages of locusts, and in 1835 from frost. Years of partial

drought have also been numerous. In 1878, the autumnal crops failed in two of the western *taluks*, on account of excessive moisture due to heavy rainfall; all the fields sown after a certain period were attacked by swarms of grubs. The cotton crop in all seasons is liable to be injured by the boll-worm.

Communications and Trade.—There are 13 lines of road, extending over a total distance of $147\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and 28 miles of railway running through the District. Till within the last fifteen years, the highway of the trade of the District, as well as of the trade of a large section of Gujarát and Western Málwá, passed through the ports of Broach and Tankári down the estuaries of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Dhádhār. Since the opening of the railway, the trade by sea has greatly fallen off. It is still, however, large enough to support a fleet of small coasting vessels, and occasionally attracts into the Narbadá foreign ships of large size. Strictly speaking, there are no harbours along the coast line of the District. The estuaries of the rivers, navigable for 92 miles, offer shelter to coasting vessels during the stormy months of the monsoon. In 1820, there were five seaports (*bandar*), viz. Degam, Tankári, Ghandhar, Dehej, and Broach. Of these, only two, BROACH and TANKARI, are still seats of trade. During the ten years ending 1847, the total value of sea-borne imports and exports averaged £1,150,091. From 1856 to 1862, the corresponding returns fell to £970,339. From 1865 to 1870, they amounted on an average to £634,369; while in 1874 they had fallen as low as £391,297, or about one-third of the corresponding returns of twenty-five years before. In 1880–81, the imports were £155,104; exports, £449,898: total, £605,002. In the Broach District section of 28 miles of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, the chief engineering work is the bridge over the Narbadá. This structure consists of 67 spans, or a total length of 4122 feet, with a maximum height of 120 feet from screw to rail level, the screw being 60 feet below the river bed, or 72 feet below low water in mid channel. The most important branch of Broach trade is the export of cotton. To the total of 65,348 tons, valued at £1,637,965, exported during the year 1874, cotton contributed £1,376,508, or 84·03 per cent. In connection with this cotton trade, 31 steam presses were employed in the District in 1874.

At present the capital by which the trade of Broach is carried on is for the most part supplied from Bombay. In 1820, the Broach dealers are said to have been representatives of mercantile houses in Bombay, Surat, and Ujjain; and now, in the majority of cases, they are agents of Bombay firms. Except in the town of Broach, where there are a few Pársis and Borahs, the capitalists are almost all Baniyás by caste. Carriers and other unskilled town labourers earn from 6d. to 9½d. a day; agricultural labourers, from 3d. to 4½d.; bricklayers and carpenters,

from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d. Female labourers are paid about one-third less than males. Lads of from 12 to 15 get about two-thirds less; boys of from 10 to 13, who accompany carpenters and bricklayers, are paid about one-fifth of the ordinary rate. The current prices per *maund* of 40 *sers* or 80 lbs. of the chief articles of food during 1881 were, for wheat, 6s.; for rice, 9s. 2½d.; for Indian millet or *joár* (*Sorghum vulgare*), 4s. 3½d.; for Italian millet or *bájrâ* (*Holcus spicatus*), 4s. 8½d.; for gram, 5s. 3d.; for peas or *dál*, 4s. 9½d.; for barley, 6s. 3d.

History.—Though the English established a Factory at Broach for trade purposes as early as 1616, it was not until after their capture of the castle of Surat in 1759 that they had any political relations with the native ruler. But soon after their accession to political power at Surat, certain questions of revenue gave rise to a dispute with the ruler of Broach, and in 1771 a force was sent from Surat against his capital. This expedition, which was not begun till May, resulted in failure; but during the ensuing rainy season, the Nawáb of Broach visited Bombay, and agreed to pay to the English a sum of £40,000. This, however, he failed to do, and in November 1772 a second expedition was sent against Broach. The city was taken with little difficulty, though with the loss of General Wedderburn, the commander of the force. The territory acquired by the capture of the city comprised 162 villages. In 1783, the country under Broach, which by treaty and conquest had by that time come to include the lands of Ankleswar, Hánsot, Dehejbára, and Amod, was by the treaty of Sálbái (Salbye) handed over to the Maráthás—the original conquest to Mahádájí Sindhiá, and the new acquisitions to the Peshwá. For nineteen years these territories remained under Maráthá rule, till in 1803, in consequence of the treaty of Bassein, Sindhiá's possessions in Gujarát were invaded by a British force, and the city of Broach was again taken. No further territorial changes took place till 1818, when, under the terms of the treaty of Poona, three sub-divisions were added to the District. Since that date the history of Broach has been marked by only two events—in 1823, an outbreak of Kolís took place, and in 1857 a riot between the Pársís and Musalmáns. The first revenue settlement of the District took place in 1870–71; it will become open to resettlement in 1895–96.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *táluks* or Sub-divisions, viz. AMOD, BROACH, ANKLESWAR, JAMBUSAR, and WAGRA. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and three Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civil servant. For judicial purposes, the District was formerly included within the jurisdiction of the Judge of Surat. It now contains 4 civil judges and 15 stipendiary magistrates, the average distance in miles of villages from the nearest court being 12. In the year 1880–81,

the total strength of the regular police force was 417 officers and men. Of these, under the District superintendent, 2 were subordinate officers, 77 inferior subordinate officers, 22 mounted constables, and 315 foot-constables, of whom 180 were provided with firearms, and the remainder with swords or batons. The cost of maintaining this force was £7683. These figures show 1 man to every 3·49 square miles, as compared with the area, and 1 man to every 784 persons, as compared with the population; the cost of maintenance being equal to £5, 9s. per square mile, or 5½d. per head of population. With the exception of accommodation provided for a few under-trial prisoners at the head-quarters of each Sub-division, there is no prison in the District. All prisoners are now conveyed by rail to the District jail in Surat. The District contains 9 post-offices and 6 telegraph offices, one at each of the 5 stations on the railway, and a separate Government office at Broach.

The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1880-81 a total of £18,552. There are one city and two town municipalities at Broach, Jambúsar, and Ankleswar. The total municipal receipts in 1880-81 amounted to £9922; and the expenditure to £10,564, the incidence of taxation being 3s. 1½d. per head of population within municipal limits, 4s. 1¾d. per head in Broach, and 1s. 0¼d. in Jambúsar. The whole amount of revenue raised in 1880-81—imperial, municipal, and local—was £261,574, or 16s. per head of the entire population. Of this, £224,278 was derived from the land revenue; £9649 from excise, and £15,285 from the sale of stamps.

In the year 1880-81, there were 3 superior schools, with an attendance of 377 pupils, and 214 Government primary schools, or 1 school for every 2 inhabited villages, with an average attendance of 11,347 pupils, or 3·5 per cent. of the total population. Of the total number, 7 were girls' schools. The whole cost of education to the State amounted to £6890. In Broach city there is 1 library and 2 local newspapers.

There are in all 15 fairs or places of pilgrimage, of which 11 are resorted to by Hindus, and 4 by Musalmáns. Shukaltirth is annually visited by about 25,000 pilgrims. At Bhádbhut and Karod, the number varies from 50,000 to 100,000. The chief towns are—(1) BROACH, with a population (1881) of 37,281; (2) JAMBUSAR, population 11,479; (3) ANKLESWAR, population 9535; (4) AMOD, population 5822.

Medical Aspects.—The District is as healthy as any part of Gujarát, and the climate is much more pleasant than in those parts of the Province situated farther from the sea. For a series of years ending with 1849, the average rainfall was about 33 inches; between 1852 and 1860, the average returns are 41·60 inches; from 1860 to 1870, 34 inches; 36·27 inches in 1872-73, and 35·78 in 1873-74. According to the Meteorological Report for 1881, the general average rainfall at Broach

city is returned at 38·87 inches. Frosts are said to occur at intervals of from 10 to 12 years, sometimes, as in 1835, sufficiently severe to destroy the crops. The latter days of March and the month of April are the hottest season in the year. At the end of April, west and south-west winds begin to blow, and continue till October, when the rainy season closes. In the following months, slight easterly winds prevail, lasting till the end of December. There are 6 dispensaries, all established within the last few years, and one hospital at Broach city. During the year 1880-81, 25,751 persons in all were treated in the dispensaries, of whom 25,612 were out-door and 139 in-door patients; while the civil hospital afforded relief to 330 in-patients and 7560 out-patients; and in the same year 6025 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths registered throughout the District in the fourteen years ending 1879 was 96,570, giving an average annual mortality of 6898, or a death-rate of 19·16 per thousand. In 1880, the total number of deaths was returned at 10,326, or a death-rate of 31·5 per thousand. During the same year the number of births was returned at 5861, of whom 3104 were males, and 2757 females, giving a birth-rate of 16·73 per thousand of population. [For further information regarding Broach, see the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 337-569 (Government Press, Bombay, 1871). Also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum on Current Land Revenue Settlements*, pp. 434-437; the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881; and the annual *Administration Reports of the Bombay Government* from 1880 to 1883.]

Broach.—Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Area (1881) 302 square miles; 1 town and 104 villages; occupied houses, 23,011. Population (1881) 110,561, or 366 per square mile. Hindus numbered 64,382; Muhammadans, 30,531; and 'others,' 15,648. Almost the whole of this Sub-division is a flat rich plain of black soil, stretching towards the north bank of the Narbadá, forty-three miles of whose course lie within its limits. The remainder consists of a few islands in the bed of the river, and a narrow strip of land on the southern bank, nearly opposite the city of Broach. The supply of tank and well water is defective. Of the total area of the Sub-division, 14 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey returns, comprises 125,321 acres of occupied land; 10,406 acres of cultivable waste; 29,593 acres of uncultivable waste, and 20,182 acres occupied by village sites, roads, tanks, and rivers. From the total Government area of 135,727 acres, 19,974 acres have to be subtracted on account of alienated lands in State villages. Of the balance of 115,753 acres, the actual area of cultivable State lands, 106,531 acres were under cultivation, fallow, or under grass in 1873-74. The Government assessment, which was fixed in 1870-71, and remains

in force till 1899-1900, amounts to £58,894 net, or an average of 10s. 5½d. per acre. The Sub-division contained 3 civil and 6 criminal courts in 1883, with two police stations (*thānds*); strength of regular police, 207 men; village watchmen (*chaukidārs*), 709.

Broach.—Chief town of the District of the same name in Gujarāt (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Narbadā (Nerbudda) river, about 30 miles from its mouth. Lat. 21° 43' N., long. 73° 2' E.; area, including suburbs, 3½ square miles; number of houses, 10,443; population (1881) 37,281, namely, males 19,404, and females 17,877, classified as follows:—Hindus, 22,201; Musalmāns, 10,847; Jains, 873; Pārsīs, 2088; Christians, 111; and 'others,' 1161; municipal revenue (1881) £7985, or 1s. 3½d. per head of population; municipal expenditure in same year, £9256.

Seen from the southern bank of the Narbadā, or approached by the railway bridge from the south, the massive stone wall, rising from the water's edge, and lining the river bank for about a mile, and the buildings standing out from the high ground behind, give the town of Broach a marked and picturesque appearance. The fortifications, though by local tradition ascribed to Sidh Rāj Jaisingjī of Anhilwāra (12th century), were, according to the author of the *Mirat-i-Sikandri*, built in 1526 A.D., under the orders of Sultān Bahādūr, King of Ahmadābād. In the middle of the 17th century (1660), the walls are said to have been destroyed by the Emperor Aurangzeb, and about twenty-five years later, to have been rebuilt by the same monarch as a protection against the attacks of the Marāthās. Of late years, the fortifications on the land side have been allowed to fall into disrepair, and in some places almost every trace of them has disappeared. On the southern side, where protection is required against the floods of the river, the city wall is kept in good order. Built of large blocks of stone, the river face of the wall, raised from 30 to 40 feet high, stretches along the bank for about a mile. It is provided with five gates, and the top forms a broad pathway. The circuit of the wall includes an area of ¾ths of a square mile, which in the centre rises to a height of from 60 to 80 feet above the surrounding country. This mound, from the broken bricks and other *débris* dug out of it, shows signs of being in part at least of artificial construction. At the same time, the presence of one or two small hillocks to the north of the city favours the opinion that it may have been the rising ground on the river bank which led the early settlers to choose Broach as the site for a city. Within the walls, the streets are narrow, and in some places steep. The houses are generally two storeys high, with walls of brick and tiled roofs. In the eastern part of the town are some large family mansions said to have been built in 1790. In the suburbs the houses have a meaner appearance, many of them being not more than one storey high, with walls of wattle and daub.

The city of Broach was, according to local legend, originally founded by the sage Bhragu, and called Bhragupur or Bhragu's city. In the 1st century of the Christian era, the sage's settlement had given its name—Barugaza—to a large Province, and had itself become one of the chief ports in Western India. Two hundred years later, it was the capital of a Rájput king; and in the early part of the 7th century, it is said by the Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, to have contained 10 Buddhist convents, with 300 monks and 10 temples. Half a century later, Broach was a town of sufficient importance to attract some of the earliest Musalmán expeditions against Western India. Under the Rájput dynasties of Anhilwára (746–1300 A.D.), Broach was a flourishing seaport. During the troubles that followed the overthrow of the Anhilwára kings, the city would seem to have changed hands on more than one occasion. But with the exception of two years (1534–36), during which it was held by the officers of the Emperor Humáyún, Broach remained (1391 to 1572) under the Musalmán dynasty of Ahmadábád. About this time, the city was twice (1536 and 1546) plundered by the Portuguese, who, except for its streets, 'so narrow most of them that two horsemen could not pass at the same time,' admired the city 'with its magnificent and lofty houses, with their costly lattices, the famous ivory and blackwood workshops, and its townsmen well skilled in mechanics—chiefly weavers, who make the finest cloth in the world' (*Decadas de Couto*, v. 325). In 1573, Broach was surrendered to the Emperor Akbar by Muzaffar Sháh III., the last of the line of Ahmadábád kings. Ten years later, Muzaffar Sháh recovered the city, but held it only for a few months, when it again fell into the hands of the Emperor of Delhi. In 1616 a British factory, and in 1617 a Dutch factory, were established at Broach. In 1660, some of the fortifications of the city were razed to the ground by the order of the Emperor Aurangzeb. In this defenceless state it was twice, in 1675 and 1686, plundered by the Maráthás. After the second attack, Aurangzeb ordered that the walls should be rebuilt, and the city named Sukhábád. In 1736, the Musalmán commandant of the port was raised by Nizám-ul-Mulk to the rank of Nawáb. In April 1771, an attempt on the part of the English to take Broach failed; but in November 1772 a second force was sent against the town, and this time it was stormed and captured. In 1783, it was handed over to Sindhiá, but was retaken in 1803 by the British, and since that time it has remained in our possession.

In 1777, the town is said to have contained 50,000 inhabitants; in 1812, 37,716. The census of 1872 returned 36,932; that of 1881, 37,281. The only classes calling for special notice are, among Hindus, the Bhrágav Bráhmans, who claim to be descendants of the sage Bhragu. The Pársís, from the number and antiquity of their Towers of Silence, are supposed

to have settled at Broach as far back as the 11th century. Formerly shipbuilders and skilled weavers, they have suffered from the decay of both trades. Many of them have migrated to Bombay, to improve their circumstances; and the frugality of those that are left enables them to keep out of pauperism. The Brahma Kshattris—a writer caste—are influential and prosperous. The greater number and most wealthy of the trading classes are Sráwaks or Jains. The Musalmáns are for the most part in a condition of poverty.

Broach is one of the oldest seaports in Western India. Eighteen hundred years ago, it was a chief seat of the trade then carried on between India and the ports of Western Asia. In more recent times, though the trade of Gujarát has never again centred in the harbours of this District, Broach so far maintained its position, that in the 17th century it sent ships eastward to Java and Sumatra, and westward to Aden and the ports of the Red Sea. Later on, the foreign trade of Gujarát collected more and more in Surat, until from Surat it was transferred to Bombay. The cotton once exported from Broach to China and Bengal, was sent through Surat and Bombay; and as far back as 1815, the Broach ports ceased to have any foreign commerce. They now possess only a coasting trade south to Bombay and all the intermediate ports, and north as far as Mándvi, in Cutch. The total value of the sea-borne trade of Broach in 1880-81 was £601,467, of which £154,026 represented the value of imports, and £447,441 that of exports. The chief articles of trade are, towards the south, exports—flowers of the *mahúd* tree (*Bassia latifolia*), wheat, and cotton; imports—molasses, rice, betel-nut, timber, coal, iron, and cocoa-nut. To the west and north the exports are—grain, cotton seed, *mahúd* flowers, tiles, and firewood; the imports, chiefly stone for building.

In ancient times, cloth is mentioned as one of the chief articles of export from Broach; and in the 17th century, when the English and Dutch first settled in Gujarát, it was the fame of its cloth manufactures that led them to establish factories in Broach. The kinds of cloth for which Broach was specially known at that time would seem to have been *bástás*, broad and narrow dimities, and other fine calicoes. The gain to the European trader of having a factory at Broach was, that he might 'oversee the weavers, buying up the cotton yarn to employ them all the rains, when he sets on foot his investments, that they may be ready against the season for the ships.' About the middle of the 17th century, the District is said to have produced more manufactures, and those of the finest fabrics, than the same extent of country in any other part of the world, not excepting Bengal. In spite of the increasing competition of the produce of steam factories in Bombay, Surat, and Ahmadábád, handloom weaving in Broach has within the last few years shown signs of reviving.

With the exception of a stone mosque constructed out of an older Hindu temple, the city contains no buildings of interest. To the west are the groves of the well-wooded suburbs of Vajalpur, and northwards a group of two hills relieves the line of the level plain, while on the north-east rows of tamarind trees mark where a hundred years ago was the Nawáb's garden, with 'summer pavilions, fountains, and canals.' To the east are the spots that, to a Hindu, give the town a special interest, the site of King Báli's sacrifice, and the temple of Bhragu Rishi. About 200 yards from the bastion at the north-west corner of the fort is the tomb of Brigadier David Wedderburn, who was killed at the siege of Broach on 14th November 1772. About two miles west of the fort, are a few large and massive tombs, raised to members of the Dutch Factory. Beyond the Dutch tombs are the five Pársí Towers of Silence: four being old and disused, and the fifth lately built by a rich Pársí merchant of Bombay. The city has been surveyed with a view to protect the rights of both the Government and the public. The drinking water used by the inhabitants of the intramural parts of the town comes almost entirely from the Narbadá. There are but few wells in the city; and, unlike Surat and Ahmadábád, the custom of having cisterns in dwelling-houses for the storage of rain water is not general.

Búbak.—Town and railway station in Sehván *táluk*, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 9 miles west of the town of Sehván. Lat. $26^{\circ} 26' 30''$ N., long. $67^{\circ} 45' 15''$ E. Population (1881) 2836. Municipal revenue in 1880-81, £305; incidence of taxation about 2s. 1½d. per head; expenditure, £246. Post-office, school, and police station. Carpets of good quality are manufactured. Owing to floods caused by the overflow of the Manchhar Lake, the *zamíndárs* have been of late years considerably impoverished. To resist these encroachments, the town has been surrounded by a ditch. The public health has been affected in consequence, and in 1869 Búbak suffered severely from cholera. The railway station is distant 3 miles from the town.

Búd-Búd.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. $23^{\circ} 24' 30''$ N., long. $87^{\circ} 34' 45''$ E.

Budáun (*Buddoon*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between $27^{\circ} 39'$ and $28^{\circ} 27'$ N. lat., and between $78^{\circ} 19' 15''$ and $79^{\circ} 41'$ E. long.; area, 2001·8 square miles; population in 1881, 906,451 souls. Budáun forms the south-western District of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north-east by Bareli (Bareilly) and the State of Rámpur, on the north-west by Moradábád, on the south-west by the Ganges, and on the east by Sháhjahánpur. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of BUDAUN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Budáun does not materially differ

in its main features from the other portions of the great Gangetic plain. It stretches, with little diversity of surface or scenery, from the valley of the Rámangá on the east, to the sacred river which forms its boundary on the west, in an almost unbroken succession of ancient alluvial uplands. But although its level face is seldom interrupted by any elevation greater than a shifting sandhill, yet a closer view discloses minor varieties of soil and productions which at first sight escape the eye in surveying its somewhat monotonous flats. The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Sot, on whose banks the town of Budáun occupies a picturesque eminence, crowned by mouldering battlements of early architecture. The north-eastern of these two regions forms the dividing range between the Sot and the Rámangá, and the soil as it approaches the former stream falls away into huge gaping ravines, through which the surface drainage cuts itself an ever-widening course into the channel below. A large part of this tract still abounds in heavy jungles of *dhák* and wild date, the remnant of that famous forest which once surrounded Aonlá in Bareilly District, and into which the armies of the Mughal Emperors dared not penetrate. The estates situated in the heart of this wild region bear the name of the Bankati villages. Similar patches of dense brushwood may be found scattered here and there in other parts of the District. South-west of the Sot lies the central upland tract, a highly cultivated plain, comprising the richest agricultural land in Budáun. The jungle is, however, rapidly decreasing in area, owing to the demand for firewood created by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The District is, however, well wooded with timber and fruit trees, and there are few villages without a plantation of some sort. Mango groves occupy 23,045 acres, and are often planted in avenues along roadsides for the sake of the shade they afford. Beyond it, towards the Ganges, rises the high and sandy ridge known as the *bhúr*, which runs parallel to the river from end to end of the District. It consists for the most part of very barren and almost uncultivated land, interspersed at wide distances with villages of Ahars, whose cattle graze upon the short grass which covers its sandy soil. The lower alluvial basin of the Ganges lies to the south of the *bhúr*; but the fear of inundation prevents cultivators from settling on its uncertain lowlands, and vast savannahs of rank grass and tall *táttar* reeds accordingly usurp the place of tillage. The principal rivers besides the Ganges, the Sot, and the Rámangá, in order from east to west, are the Aril, the Andheri, a tributary of the Aril, the Maháwa, with its tributaries the Chhoiya and the Nakta Nadí. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burthen; the Rámangá only in the rainy season, except for small country craft. Several shallow lakes (*jhlis*) lie scattered throughout the District, the chief of which, the Daleganj *jhl*,

has a length of about 3 miles. The reeds and grasses which grow on the surface of these lakes and marshes, are cut by the villages for cattle fodder or for thatching purposes. A low belt of porous and somewhat marshy clay, intervening between the *bhúr* and the valley of the Maháwa, probably marks the ancient bed of the Ganges. *Kankar*, or nodular limestone, used for road metalling, is quarried at several places in the District. The only other mineral product is a kind of calcareous marl, which is burned into lime. Among the wild animals, antelope, hog, and *nilgai* are common, and wolves are found on the sandy wastes of the *bhúr* tract. Black partridge, quail, water-fowl, and hares abound, while floriken and sand-grouse are occasionally met with. Many varieties of fish are caught in the rivers and streams.

History.—Budáun owes its name, as the accepted tradition records, to one Budh, an Ahar prince, who founded the city about the year 905 A.D. His descendants held the surrounding tract for another century, and Ahars still form the principal element of the population throughout all the wilder portions of the District. In 1028, Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Sultán Mahmúd of Ghazní, invaded the country now known as Rohilkhand, and established himself for a time in Budáun. He suffered many losses, however, during his struggle with its Hindu possessors, and eventually abandoned his conquest, leaving many of his followers behind. In 1196, Kutab-ud-dín Aibak, Ghiyás-ud-dín's viceroy in India, captured the fort of Budáun, killed the Rájá, and sacked the city. Shams-ud-dín Altamsh obtained the government of the new dependency, which he exchanged in 1210 for the throne of Delhi. Under his successors, Budáun ranked as a place of great importance; and in 1236 gave a second Emperor to Delhi, in the person of Rukn-ud-dín, whose handsome mosque, the Jamá Masjíd Shamshi, still adorns the city in which he had been governor. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the annals of Budáun are confined to the usual local insurrections and bloody repressions, which form the staple of Indian history before the advent of the Mughals. In 1415, Mahábat Khán, the governor, rose in rebellion, and the Emperor Khizr Khán marched against him in vain. After a reign of eleven years' duration, the rebellious vassal was compelled in 1426 to surrender to Mubárák Sháh, Khizr Khán's successor. Alam Sháh visited the city in 1449; and during his stay, his Wazír joined with Bahlol Lodi in depriving him of all his dominions except Budáun, which he was permitted to retain until his death in 1479. His son-in-law, Husáin Sháh of Jaunpur, then took possession of the District; but Bahlol Lodi soon compelled the intruder to restore it to the Delhi Empire. After the establishment of the Mughal power, Humáyún appointed governors of Sambhal and Budáun; but they disagreed, and the Sambhal governor, having taken Budáun by siege, put his rival to death. Under the administrative

organization of Akbar, Budáun was formed in 1556 into a *Sarkár* of *Subah* Delhi, which was granted as a fief to Kásim Alí Khán. In 1571, a great fire consumed the larger part of the city; and in Sháh Jahán's time the seat of Government was removed to Bareilly (Bareli). The rise of the Rohillá power, which centred in the latter town, accelerated the decline of Budáun. In 1719, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, Muhammad Khán Bangash annexed the south-eastern portion of the District, including the city, to Farukhábad, while the Rohillás under Ali Muhammad seized upon the remainder. In 1754, however, the Rohillás recovered the *pargands* which had been united to Farukhábad. Their subsequent history, and their subjugation by the Wazír of Oudh, belong more properly to the account of BAREILLY (BARELI) DISTRICT. Dúndi Khán of Budáun made his peace with Shujá-ud-daulá before the defeat of Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the national leader, at Míránpur Katra in 1774; but after that event the Wazír attacked him, notwithstanding his submission, and took possession of Budáun.

In 1801, the District passed with the rest of Rohilkhand under British rule. Originally, it formed part of Moradábád District; but in 1805, four of its *pargands* were transferred to Bareilly, namely, Ujháni, Usahát, Budáun, and Kot Salbáhan. In 1823, a District of Sahaswán was erected into a separate charge, comprising portions of Moradábád, Bareilly, and Aligarh. Fifteen years later, the head-quarters were transferred to Budáun, a larger and more important post than Sahaswán. In 1845, the Aligarh *pargands* lying beyond the Ganges were handed over to the Doáb District of Etah, to which they more naturally belong. Since that period no territorial changes have taken place. The Mutiny of 1857 alone breaks in upon the peaceful course of civil administration. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Budáun on 15th May. A fortnight later, the treasure guard mutinied, plundered the treasury, and broke open the jail. The civil officers then found themselves compelled to leave for Fatehgarh. On the 2nd of June, the Bareilly mutineers marched in, and on the 17th, Abdul Ráhim Khán assumed the government of the District. As usual, disturbances broke out between the Hindus and the Musalmán leaders; and in July and August, the Muhammadans fought two regular battles with the Thákurs, whom they completely defeated. At the end of August several European fugitives crossed the Ganges into the District, and were protected at Dátaganj by the landholders. After the fall of Walidád Khán's fort at Málágarh, that rebel chieftain passed into Budáun in October, but found it advisable to proceed to Fatehgarh. On the 5th of November, the Musalmáns defeated the Ahars at Gunaur, and took possession of that *tahsil*, hitherto held by our police. Towards the close of January 1858, the rebels, under Niáz Muhammad, marched against Fatehgarh,

but were met by Sir Hope Grant's force at Shamsábád and utterly dispersed. Niáz Muhammad then returned to Budáun. On the 27th of April, General Penny's force defeated the rebels at Kakrala, but the General himself was killed in the action; while Major Gordon fell upon them in the north, near Bisauli. Their leaders fled to Bareilly, and managers were at once appointed to the various *pargands* on behalf of the British Government. By the 12th of May, Budáun came once more into our hands, though Tántia Topi with his fugitive army afterwards crossed this portion of Rohilkhand into Oudh, on the 27th. Brigadier Coke's column entered the District on the 3rd of June, and Colonel Wilkinson's column from Bareilly on the 8th. Order was then permanently restored, and has not since been menaced.

Population.—The Census of 1881 showed a slight decrease as compared with the previous enumeration in 1872. In 1872, the population was returned at 934,670; and in 1881 (the area being the same) at 906,451, showing a decrease of 28,219, or 3·11 per cent. in the 9 years. The Census of 1881 was taken over an area of 2001 square miles; it disclosed a total population of 906,451 persons, distributed among 1834 villages or townships, and inhabiting 102,902 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 452·8; villages per square mile, 0·91; houses per square mile, 51·4; persons per village, 489; persons per house, 8·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 487,351; females, 419,100; proportion of males, 53·78 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 767,255, or 84·6 per cent.; while the Musalmáns amounted to only 138,687, or 15·3 per cent. The proportion of Muhammadans is smaller in Budáun than in any other District of Rohilkhand, except Sháhjahánpur. The Census also returned 160 persons Jains, 40 Sikhs, and 309 Christians or 'others.' Among the various Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 60,863; Rájputs, 63,562; Baniyás, or trading class, 32,480; Ahars, graziers on the *bhúr* tract, the predominant caste in the District, 133,085; Chamárs, landless agriculturists, who have emerged under British rule from the position of serfs, 122,085; Gadarias, or shepherd caste, 27,811; Kachhís, cultivators, 107,230; Kahárs, labourers and palanquin-bearers, 37,146; Káyasths, 9778; and Kurmís, 6274. The Musalmán population comprised 66,024 Sunnis, 370 Shiás, 7 Wahábís, and 107 of unspecified denominations. The total agricultural population of all ages and both sexes amounted to 672,773. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 5272; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1426; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6079; (4) agricultural and pastoral

class, including gardeners, 248,543; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 44,500; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 23,735 labourers and 157,796 unspecified, including male children), 181,531. Three predatory races infest the District—the Bhantus, a Hindu tribe who wander about in large gangs of from 20 to 50 persons, and live entirely by begging and stealing; the Habúrahs, also Hindus, who form smaller bands, and occasionally undertake field work; and the Sansias, a vagrant Musalmán clan who cross over from the Doáb, and bear a bad reputation for kidnapping children. Seven towns contain a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, BUDAUN, 33,680; SAHASWAN, 14,605; UJHANI, 7185; ISLAMNAGAR, 5890; ALAPUR, 5630; BILSI, 6301; and KAKRALA, 5810. BISAUJI, which had less than 5000 inhabitants at the date of the Census, is also a considerable town, with many fine Pathán buildings, including a handsome mosque. Of the 1834 towns and villages comprising the District, 543 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 741 have from two to five hundred; 381 from five hundred to a thousand; 133 from one to two thousand; 19 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; 5 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand, and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The District contains 2001 square miles, of which 1370 are cultivated, 381 are cultivable, and 250 are uncultivable. The fertile upland of Budáun consists of a light loam, merging gradually into the poor and almost barren sand of the *bhúr* region; but the District also comprises considerable fringes of lowland, known as *khádir* and *tardí*. The *khádir* is composed of porous clay, capable of producing two crops a year for many seasons in succession; it occupies the deserted channel of the Ganges, where water may always be found at a few feet below the surface. It is specially adapted for rice, which is always grown for the autumn harvest; while barley and wheat follow immediately as spring crops. The *tardí* comprises the modern alluvial fringe along the present beds of the Ganges and the Rámangá. The valley of the former river contains several large patches of *úsar* land, whitened by the destructive saline efflorescence known as *reh*, which appears upon the surface after inundations or heavy rain. The mode of tillage does not differ from that of other North-Western Districts. The *kharrif* or autumn crops include cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, rice, *jodr*, *bájrú*, and *moth*; the *rabi* or spring crops consist chiefly of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other cereals or pulses. There is no canal irrigation in the District, the fields being watered either from wells, lakes, ponds, swamps, or rivers; about 24 per cent. of the entire cultivated area is irrigated in this manner. Manure is not employed for the ordinary agricultural staples, but is copiously applied to the lands immediately around the villages, which produce poppy, tobacco, vege-

tables, and other choice crops. The ordinary modes of personal and communal tenure exist in Budáun, divisible into the three chief heads of *samindári*, *pattidári*, and *bháyachárá*. The Rájputs are the great landowning caste, and they hold in all 622 estates. The Shaikh Musalmáns rank next with 346 estates, and the Ahars third with 194. Where many small proprietors exist, the owner often cultivates the whole, or nearly the whole, of his land; but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. Out of the total cultivated area of 891,189 acres, 139,106 acres are held by the proprietors as *sír* or homestead; while 561,212 acres are tilled by tenants with rights of occupancy, and 190,871 acres by tenants-at-will. The average area cultivated in 1881 by each head of the agricultural population (672,773, or 74.22 per cent. of the District population) was 1.72 acres; the amount of Government land revenue and cesses levied from the landholders was £122,944; and the amount of rental, including cesses paid by the cultivators, was £236,540, or an average of 5s. 2½d. for each cultivated acre. Besides the rent, however, the income of the landlord receives considerable additions from the customary dues or cesses which tenants present upon certain stated occasions. Each agricultural tenant must supply a measure of bran in the spring, and a bundle of fodder in the autumn; he must plough his landlord's fields twice a year, at the festivals of *Holi* and *Dusahára*, and must lend his cart to carry home the harvest. In like manner, the oilman must offer a jar of oil, the tanner a pair of shoes, and the potter 50 earthen vessels a year; while the tailor is similarly bound to make four suits of clothes for his landlord, who supplies the cloth, but pays nothing for the labour. These dues give the proprietor great social consequence as the chief personage in his own village; and the tenants in return expect from him many favours, which would not be shown if they were remiss in discharging their customary obligations. The situation of Budáun, lying apart from the busy channels of trade, has produced a less rapid rise in prices and wages than has occurred in many neighbouring Districts. The construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, however, has greatly added to the facilities for distributing the local produce, and rents and prices have both felt the influence of this important change. Coolies and unskilled labourers receive from 2½d. to 3½d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2½d. to 3d. per diem; and bricklayers or carpenters, 6d. to 1s. per diem. The prices current of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1880: Wheat, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; rice (best), 6 *sers* per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt.; rice (common), 14½ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 18½ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 1d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods on the Ganges and Maháwa occur to a greater or less extent every year; and when they rise unusually high or

late, much of the autumn crop is carried away. The loss, however, is not considerable, as the banks of these rivers are lined with jungle, and only occasionally cultivated by speculative proprietors. But Budáun suffers greatly from drought, the common scourge of all Upper India. The first recorded famine occurred in the year 1761, when many of the people died, and large numbers emigrated. The next severe scarcity took place in 1803-04, when the autumn crops utterly failed, and the spring harvest was far below the average. In the great famine of 1837-38, Budáun suffered the extreme of misery, thousands died of starvation, grain rose to unattainable prices, and the police found themselves powerless for the preservation of order. In 1860, the autumn crops again failed, and no rain fell after September; the spring sowings accordingly perished, and many persons died of starvation. The price of grain began to rise in August 1860, and continued high till March 1861, when it gradually fell, and in October ordinary rates once more prevailed. In 1868, the rains partially failed, and distress arose in 1869, as the autumn harvest had only produced half its average yield; but timely showers in January and February 1869 prevented the scarcity from ever reaching famine pitch, although relief operations on an extended scale became necessary.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of Budáun, which is chiefly confined to agricultural produce, centres in the three towns of BUDAUN, SAHASWAN, and BILSI. The last-named mart forms the main distributing agency for European goods and imported wares in this part of Rohilkhand. Its imports include chintz, salt, groceries, iron, metal-work, and *pán*; while its exports consist chiefly of sugar, grain, and leather. The only manufacturing industries, apart from the simplest forms of weaving, the making of rough agricultural tools, and of brass or earthen domestic vessels, is indigo manufacture and sugar-refining. The principal seat of the former is at Bilsí, where a European firm has a large factory, with branches in other parts of the District. A great fair takes place at Kakora, on the last day of Kártik, attended by about 100,000 persons. Other large fairs are held at Cháopur (20,000 visitors), Sukhela (10,000), Lakhanpur (7000), and Bára Chirra (5000). The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts the District in two places. The main line from Bareilly (Bareli) to Chandausi traverses the north-eastern angle for a length of 16 miles, with 3 stations—namely, Karengí (better known as Mahmúdpur), Dabtúra, and Asafpur. The Moradábád and Aligarh branch runs through the north-western corner for a distance of 13 miles to Rájghát on the Ganges, where it crosses the river by an iron bridge. The two stations on this branch of the line are Balralá and Dhanári. Good roads connect all the principal centres of population; the most important being that from Bareilly to Háthras, through Budáun and Ujhání, crossing the Ganges at Kachhlaghát by a bridge

of boats. Four other similar bridges exist at Anúpsahar, Rájghát, Kádírchauk, and Surájpurg'hát—the last two on the Etah and Fatehgarh roads respectively. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burthen.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Collector-Magistrate, 1 Joint and 1 Assistant Magistrate, 1 Deputy Magistrate, and 5 *tahsildárs*. The Judge of Sháhjahánpur holds civil jurisdiction over the entire District; the criminal jurisdiction being under the charge of the additional Judge of Bijnaur and Budáun; the Judge of Bareilly has charge of the remainder. Four *munsif's* courts are also established at East and West Budáun, Sahaswán, and Bisauli. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876, amounted to £149,908, of which £102,914, or a little more than two-thirds, was contributed by the land-tax. In 1880–81, the imperial revenue amounted to £120,544, of which £103,625 was derived from the land; the cost of officials and police of all kinds, in the same year, was £20,644. The regular police force in 1880 numbered 393 officers and men, besides a municipal or town force of 222 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6804, of which £5490 was contributed from provincial and £1314 from local funds. In addition, there were 2031 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), maintained at an estimated cost of £7335. The District contains but one jail, which had a daily average of 379 prisoners in 1881, including 14 females. There were 7 Imperial and 11 District post-offices in 1877, besides 5 telegraph stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The number of Government aided or inspected schools in 1881–82 was 160, with a roll of 4239 pupils on 31st March 1882. This is exclusive of unaided or uninspected schools. The Census Report returned 4828 boys and 225 girls as under instruction in 1881, besides 12,475 males and 211 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Government District school is of the lower middle grade, and has a boarding-house attached, for boys from a distance. There are aided schools under the superintendence of the American Methodist Episcopal Mission. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *tahsils* and 11 *pargandás*, containing, at the date of settlement in 1870, an aggregate number of 2140 estates, held by 30,104 registered proprietors or coparceners. Municipalities have been established at BUDAUN, BILSI, UJHANI, and SAHASWAN. In 1880–81, their joint revenue amounted to £3252, or 1s. 4½d. per head of population (51,690) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Budáun resembles that of other Districts in Rohilkhand, being somewhat cooler and moister than the adjacent portions of the Doáb, owing to the greater proximity of the hills and the damp submontane tract. The average rainfall

during 31 years has amounted to 32·49 inches per annum. The maximum during this period was 44·2 inches in 1871, and the minimum 14·0 inches in 1868, when the danger of famine was imminent. The mean annual temperature reached 76° F. in 1871, with a maximum monthly average of 91° in June, and a minimum of 58° F. in January. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1880 was 24,951, or 27·52 per thousand of the population. Charitable dispensaries have been established at Budáun, Sahaswán, Gunraur, Islámnagar, Bisauli, Dátaganj, Usehát, and Bilsí. These eight institutions afforded relief in 1881 to 60,172 persons, of whom 1624 were in-door patients. [For further information regarding Budáun District, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. v. pp. 1-236 (Allahábád, 1879). Also the *Settlement Report of the District*, by C. P. Carmichael, Esq., 1873; the *North-Western Provinces Census Report of 1881*; and the *Annual Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Budáun.—Head-quarters *tahsil* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern bank of the Ganges, and comprising the *parganá*s of Budáun and Ujhání. Area, 466 square miles, of which 309 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 222,312. Land revenue, £21,337: total revenue, £24,210; rental paid by cultivators, £55,340. The Sub-division contains 2 civil and 6 criminal courts, with two police stations (*thánda*s); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 326.

Budáun.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 2' 30" N., long. 79° 9' 45" E. Lies about a mile east of the left bank of the river Sot, and consists of an old and a new town. The former stands on a commanding eminence, and contains the fort, the ruins of whose enormous ramparts of early architecture gird it round on three sides. Handsome mosque, originally a Hindu temple, built of massive stone, and crowned by a dome of singular beauty. Besides the usual District Courts, Budáun contains a dispensary, school, municipal hall, jail, church, and chapel of the American Methodist Mission, which maintains several girls' schools in different parts of the town. Although intersected at all points by good metalled roads, the town stands apart from the modern course of traffic, owing to the growth of railways, which have somewhat diverted its trade. Population (1881) 33,680, namely, 19,492 Muhammadans, 14,134 Hindus, and 54 Christians; area of town site, 415 acres. Municipal income (1881-82) £2211, or an average of rs. 3½d. per head of the population. Budáun was founded, according to tradition, by Budh, an Ahar prince, about 905 A.D., and held by his descendants till the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazni, in 1028. Sacked by Kutab-ud-dín in 1186. The city formed the seat of government for a *sarkár* under the Patháns and

Mughals, but it was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1571. During the reign of Sháh Jahán (1627-1658), the seat of the Governorship was removed from Budáun to Bareilly. On the death of the Emperor Farukh Siyyar in 1719, the Nawáb of Farukhábad seized the city, from whose son it was wrested about thirty years later, by the Rohillás under Háfiz Rahmat. In 1774, Budáun, with the rest of Rohilkhand, was annexed by the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, whose deputies governed the city till its cession to the British in 1801. On the outbreak of the rebellion in May 1857, the treasury guard at Budáun mutinied, and being joined by the townspeople, broke open the jail, and burned the civil station. A Native Government was then established, and remained in power till General Penny's victory at Kakrála in the following April, when the rebel governor fled the city, and order was again re-established.

Buddh Gayá (or *Bodh Gayá*).—Village in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. $24^{\circ} 41' 45''$ N., long. $85^{\circ} 2' 4''$ E. Situated about 6 miles south of Gayá town, on the west bank of the Phálgú or Nilájan river, just above its junction with the Mohána. The ruins at this place are among the most interesting and famous in India, for it is acknowledged to have been the dwelling-place of Sakya Muni or Buddha, the princely founder of the Buddhist religion, who flourished in the 6th century before the Christian era. According to General Cunningham, Buddha had ascended a mountain to the south-east of Gayá, called Prágbodhi, for the purpose of dwelling in silent solitude on its summit; but being disturbed by the tremblings caused by the flight of the god of the mountain, he descended on the south-west side, and went $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the *pípál* tree (*Ficus religiosa*) at Buddh Gayá. Midway in the descent, there was a cave (mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim Fa Hian) where Buddha rested with his legs crossed. Under the *pípál* tree the sage sat in mental abstraction for five years, until he obtained Buddha-hood—absolute enlightenment. This celebrated *bodhí drúm*, or Tree of Wisdom, has long ago disappeared; but a lineal descendant of the famous fig is now within the courtyard of the great temple, and is revered as the sacred tree itself both by Hindus and Buddhists, many of the latter coming from Nepál, Arakan, Burma, and Ceylon on pilgrimage to the holy spot. To the east is a massive brick temple, described below. The *rájásthán* or palace in the northern portion of the ruins, now partially restored, measures 1482 feet by 1006 in its greatest dimensions; it was probably the residence of the Buddhist King Asoka (250 B.C.), and his successors on the throne of Magadha. Immediately south of the palace, and on the spot where Buddha sat under the sacred *pípál* tree, in the 6th century B.C., King Asoka built a small temple, *circa* 250 B.C. Recent explorations have brought to light remains of this ancient shrine buried under the foundations of the existing one, which was built by a Burmese

king in the early years of the 14th century A.D. on the site of Asoka's early *vihar*, described by Hwen Thsang.

The temple of the 14th century fell in its turn into decay, and its ruins have become the subject of antiquarian research. General Cunningham has published the results of his labours in the *Journal of the Archaeological Survey*. A few years ago, the Burmese Government attempted a restoration of the great temple, but without success. The Bengal Government thereupon undertook the work, and placed it in the hands of Mr. J. D. Beglar, who has kindly furnished the following description of this celebrated shrine. The existing temple of Buddh Gayá consists externally of a tall spire about 47 feet square at the base, rising from a terrace 80 feet long by 78 feet wide. The terrace itself is 30 feet high, and the spire, without the pinnacle, rises to a height of nearly 160 feet above the floor below. The tower is hollow, and consists of four tiers of chambers, the two lower chambers of which have been always accessible. A third chamber has long been visible, owing to the falling off of the masonry in front ; and the existence of a fourth, reaching to the very top of the square portion of the tower, was disclosed during the recent repairs. The lowest chamber originally enshrined a clay figure of Buddha, which was demolished by the Burmese during the repairs they undertook in 1878, and replaced by a misshapen gilt brick and mortar figure. This has in its turn been removed and replaced by the largest stone figure of Buddha that could be found in Buddh Gayá. The figure rests on a great raised throne of stone, which itself encloses and buries a more ancient small throne, within which were found deposits of precious stones which have been placed in the Museum at Calcutta.

The upper chamber contains a masonry throne, also enclosing an inner and smaller one, but it has been always empty. The temple was enclosed within what is known as the Buddhist railing, portions of which were found buried beneath the accumulated debris of centuries, and have been as far as possible set up in their original positions. The character of the inscriptions, as well as the boldness and style of the sculptured scenes and ornamentations, indicate the date of the construction of the railing to be the 3rd century B.C. Several pillars of this interesting railing were, however, carried off many years ago by the *mahant* or head priest of the adjacent monastery, and now support the verandah round the great quadrangle of the *mahant's* residence.

Within the court of the temple, remains of all the ancient buildings mentioned by Hwen Thsang have been found buried under an accumulation of rubbish to a depth of nearly 30 feet in places. The outside of the wall of the great monastery, adjoining and to the north of the great temple, mentioned by Hwen Thsang, has also been exhumed and found in a fair state of preservation. It is adorned with

niches and sculptured figures, mostly, however, in fragments. Excavations to the south of the temple have brought to light a handsome flight of stone steps leading into what was a tank, with remains of ornamental cloisters on the north bank. On the east, and in front of the temple, besides numerous minor objects of interest, the remains have been exhumed of a stone gateway consisting of very massive pillars and architraves profusely ornamented. On the west side of the temple, the fall of a wall in 1880 disclosed the original back wall of the temple. Buried 30 feet under the debris, a handsomely ornamented throne was found, in the vicinity of which were fragments very much decayed, of the holy *pīpal* tree. The accumulation of rubbish has caused the elevation of the modern representative of this ancient *pīpal* to a height of 45 feet above the original plan of the courtyard. A deposit of precious stones was also found here within a plaster figure of Buddha, which was seated in a niche immediately over the throne. These relics, too, have been placed in the Calcutta Museum.

Pilgrims visit Buddh Gayá by thousands, and deposit their offerings under the sacred *pīpal* tree; but since the abolition of the fees formerly levied, the exact number cannot be accurately estimated. Close by the temple is a large convent of Sanyásis, the *mahant* or abbot of which shows visitors over the convent after they have visited the temple.

Buddh Gayá is now easily reached by the Patná and Gayá State line, which leaves the East India Railway at Bankipur, and brings pilgrims to Gayá station six miles by road from the Buddh Gayá shrines.

Buddhain (or *Buddhavana*; 'Fo-tho-fa-na' of Hwen Thsang).—Hill in Gayá District, Bengal; 17 miles north-east of Kurkihar village. Lat. 25° N., long. 85° 31' E. On account of its commanding position, it was made one of the stations of the great Trigonometrical Survey.

Buddri.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* BHADRI.

Budge-Budge.—Village in Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal.—*See* BAJ-BAJ.

Budhána (or *Burhána*).—South-western *tahsil* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the West Kálí Nadí and the Jumna, and traversed by the Hindan river and the Eastern Jumna Canal. Area, 286 square miles, of which 215 are cultivated. Population (1881) 169,650; land revenue, £28,896; total revenue, £31,849; rental paid by cultivators, £72,047. The *tahsil* contains 2 criminal courts; but in civil matters the jurisdiction is vested in the *munsif* of Shamli. Three police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 36 men; municipal or town police, 48; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 236.

Budhána.—Town in Budhána *tahsil*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-

Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Budhána *tahsil*. Situated on the right bank of the river Hindan, distant from Muzaffarnagar 19 miles south-west. Lat. $29^{\circ} 16' 50''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 31' 10''$ E.; population (1881) 6232, namely, 3937 Hindus, 2251 Musalmáns, 43 Jains, and 1 unspecified. A small municipal income is derived from a house-tax for police and conservancy purposes under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The outer walls of the houses adjoin each other so as to form a kind of fortification, through which four openings, called gates, give access to the town. *Bázár*, first-class police station, post-office. Malarious fever occasionally prevails. During the Mutiny the old fort of Budhána was occupied by Khairáti Khán of Parasauli, with the assistance of the Jaula people, but recovered on the 15th of September 1857.

Budhátá.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal. Lat. $22^{\circ} 37'$ N., long. $89^{\circ} 12'$ E. Once a very flourishing place, and still a considerable trading village. In 1857 it contained a police station, salt warehouse (*gold*), landholder's revenue court, and many rice granaries; markets were held twice a week. Ruins of extensive masonry buildings are visible, and there is a set of 12 temples dedicated to Siva, called Dwádas *mandir*. Annual fairs are held at the Hindu festivals of the *Rás-játrá*, *Durgá-pújá*, and *Káli-pújá*.

Budhpur.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; situated on the Kásáí (Cossye) river. Lat. $22^{\circ} 58' 15''$ N., long. $86^{\circ} 44'$ E. Extending for two miles along the bank are several ruins of what are thought to be Jain temples. A number of carved slabs of stone are scattered about; and an extensive collection of octagonal headstones is believed to mark the graves of the early settlers. About four miles to the north, at Pákbirá, is a group of temples with a colossal figure, about 9 feet high, supposed to represent one of the Tírthankaras or deified saints of the Jains.

Budihál.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore Native State. Contains 6 *hoblis*, with 164 primary and 54 secondary villages. Area, 369 square miles; population (1872) 37,337. Land revenue (1880-81), exclusive of water-rates, £5302. Cocoa-nut palms are largely grown. Head-quarters at Huliýár.

Budihál.—Village in Budihál *táluk*, Chitaldrúg District, Mysore Native State, and formerly head-quarters of the Budihál *táluk*. Lat. $13^{\circ} 37'$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 28'$ E.; population (1872) 821. The fort, erected by an official under the Vijayanagar dynasty, contains several inscriptions of the 16th century. It suffered during the wars between the Muhammadans and Maráthás, and is now in a ruinous state. It was one of the last places at which the insurgents held out during the disturbance of 1830. The head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name have been transferred to Huliýár.

Búdikot ('*Fort of Ashes*').—Village in Kolár District, Mysore Native State. Lat. $12^{\circ} 54' 40''$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 9' 50''$ E.; population (1881) 1266. Birthplace of Haidar Ali, who was born in 1722, when his father, Fateh Muhammad Khán, was living at Búdikot as Faujdár of Kolár under the Nawáb of Sira. Small fair held weekly on Mondays, attended by 100 persons.

Buffalo Rocks (*Liep Kywon*, or 'Turtle Island').—Lat. $16^{\circ} 19'$ to $16^{\circ} 22'$ N., long. $94^{\circ} 12'$ E., bearing nearly S. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. from Calventura Rocks, and distant therefrom 10 or 11 leagues. A group of rugged detached rocks extending nearly north and south for 3 miles, and lying off the coast, 29 miles from shore, bearing north from the western extremity of Cape Negrais, British Burma. The North Buffalo is about half a mile to the south-west of South Buffalo Island, and separated from it by the Perforated and Pillar Rocks. On the west side of the rocks the soundings are regular—20 fathoms about a mile from them, and 50 or 60 fathoms at 5 leagues distant.

Búkera.—Village in Alahyár-jo-Tando *tdluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 18 miles east from Haidarábád. Population about 700, chiefly Musalmáns, engaged in agriculture, trade, and fishing. There are four tombs here held in some repute by the Musalmán community; one, that of Shaikh Banapotrá, is said to be 500 years old; another, Pír Fazl Sháh's, 400 years old. A fair is held at these tombs twice a year, and is attended by thousands of Musalmáns.

Bukkacherla.—Village in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. The site of an important water project in connection with the Túngábhadrá irrigation system. This project, now completed, consists of anicuts across the Pennár and Badrápurnala rivers; a canal 18 miles in length and 52 yards broad, with an average depth of 7 feet of water, to feed the Anantápur, Singánámalla, Kondapúr, and Perúr tanks; and a great reservoir in the place of the present Bukkacherla tank; erected at a cost of £135,150; irrigates about 11,000 acres of waste land, which now yields in land revenue £6400 per annum.

Bukkapatnam.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Trunk Road from Bangalore to Bellary. Population (1881) 3680. The station of a sub-magistrate and police force. Besieged in 1740 by the Pálegár of Raidrúg. The Pálegár of Bellary raised the siege, and, having been admitted as an ally within the fortifications, seized the place. The tank here is the largest in the District, and possesses some historical interest. It is formed by a dam, erected 400 years ago across the Chitrávati river, connecting the two low ranges of hills which flank that stream, and irrigates 3500 acres, yielding £2100 per annum in land revenue.

Bukkaráyasamúdrám.—Village in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency.—See BAKKARAYASAMUDRAM.

Bukkur (*Bakhar*).—Fortified island in the river Indus, lying between the towns of Sukkur (Sakhar) and Rohri, in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. $27^{\circ} 42' 45''$ N., and long. $68^{\circ} 56' 30''$ E. Bukkur is a rock of limestone, oval in shape, 800 yards long, 300 wide, and about 25 feet in height. The channel separating it from the Sukkur shore is not more than 100 yards wide, and, when the river is at its lowest, about 15 feet deep in the middle. The eastern channel, or that which divides it from Rohri, is much broader, being, during the same state of the river, about 400 yards wide, with a depth of 30 feet in the middle. The Government telegraph line from Rohri to Sukkur crosses the river here by the island of Bukkur. A little to the north of Bukkur, and separated from it by a narrow channel of easy passage, is the small isle of Khwája Khizr (or Jind Pír), containing a shrine of much sanctity; while to the south of Bukkur is another islet known as Sádih Bela, well covered with foliage, and also possessing some sacred shrines. Almost the whole of the island of Bukkur is occupied by the fortress, the walls of which are double, and from 30 to 35 feet high, with numerous bastions; they are built partly of burnt and unburnt brick, are loopholed, and have two gateways, one facing Rohri on the east, and the other Sukkur on the west. The fort presents a fine appearance from the river, and has a show of great strength, which in reality it does not possess. Until 1876, Bukkur was used as a jail subsidiary to that at Shikárpur. That Bukkur, owing to its insulated position, must always have been considered a stronghold of some importance under Native rule, is evidenced by its being so frequently a bone of contention between different states. So early as A.D. 1327, when Sind was an appanage of the Delhi Empire, Bukkur seems to have been a place of note, from the fact of trustworthy persons being employed by the Emperor Muhammad Tughlak to command there. During the reign of the Samma princes, this fort seems to have changed hands several times, being occasionally under their rule, and at times under that of Delhi. During the reign of Sháh Beg Arghún, the fortifications of Bukkur appear to have been partially, if not wholly, rebuilt, the fort of Alor being broken up to supply the requisite material. In 1574, the place was delivered up to one Keshú Khán, a servant of the Mughal Emperor Akbar Sháh. In 1736, the fortress fell into the hands of the Kalhora princes, and at a subsequent date into that of the Afgháns, by whom it was retained till captured by Mír Rustam Khán of Khairpur. In 1839, during the First Afghan war, the fort of Bukkur was ceded by the Khairpur Mírs to the British, to be occupied by them, and it so remained till the conquest of the Province in 1843. Bukkur was the principal British arsenal in Sind during the Afghán and Sind campaigns.

Bulandshahr. — District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the

North-Western Provinces, lying between $28^{\circ} 3' 30''$ and $28^{\circ} 42' 45''$ N. lat., and between $77^{\circ} 20'$ and $78^{\circ} 31' 45''$ E. long. Area (1881) 1914.9 square miles; population, 924,822. Bulandshahr is a District of the Meerut (Mīrath or Merath) Division. It is bounded on the north by Meerut District; on the west by the river Jumna; on the south by Aligarh; and on the east by the Ganges. The administrative headquarters are, on account of its central situation, at the town of BULANDSHAHR, but KHURJA is the most populous city in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Bulandshahr forms a portion of the Doáb, or alluvial plain, enclosed between the Ganges and the Jumna, and presents the usual sameness which characterizes all parts of that monotonous tract. Its surface exhibits to the eye an almost uniform level of cultivated soil, stretching from one great boundary river to the other, with a scarcely perceptible watershed in its centre separating their respective tributaries. The plain follows the general slope of the Doáb from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the courses of the two main streams themselves, no less than by those of the minor channels. The average elevation is about 650 feet above the sea. Shortly before reaching the bed of either arterial river, the central plateau descends abruptly by a series of terraces, scored with deeply-cut ravines, into the *khádīr* or low-lying alluvial valley which forms the actual bank. The upland plain, here as elsewhere throughout the Doáb, is naturally dry and barren, intersected by sandy ridges, and rapidly drained by small watercourses, which have excavated for themselves a network of petty gorges in the loose and friable soil. But this unpromising region has been turned into a garden of cereals, cotton, and dye-plants by the industry of its inhabitants and the enterprise of its modern rulers, especially through the instrumentality of artificial irrigation. The Ganges Canal passes through the whole length of the District from north to south, entering in three main branches, one of which again divides into two near the town of Sikandarábád. The central branch is navigable throughout the District; and the whole system is distributed to the fields around by 626 miles of lesser ramifications. The Fatehgarh branch of the Lower Ganges Canal also intersects the entire length of the District, and is largely utilized for irrigation. Under the beneficial influence of the water so supplied, cultivation has spread widely in Bulandshahr. There is now little waste land in the District, except a few patches of worthless jungle in the neighbourhood of the Ganges; and even this is rapidly disappearing wherever the soil is sufficiently good to repay the cost of tillage. There is also comparatively little barren land known as *úsar*, covered with the white saline efflorescence called *reh*, and incapable of producing any vegetation, and the unprofitable area has decreased in Bulandshahr District since the date of the settlement.

The Ganges flows along the north-eastern border of the District for a distance of 45 miles, with a maximum velocity of current in time of flood of 12 feet per second, and a minimum velocity in the cold season of 3 feet. The river is liable to the formation of shoals, and constant alterations of its main channel; its course changes yearly, and large portions of land on its north-eastern bank are annually cut away and deposited elsewhere. The south-western bank alters but little, being protected at many places by strong headlands of hard clay and *kankar*, reaching 20 feet above high flood-level; on the north side of the river the banks are low and shelving, and at a point near Ahar during floods the low-lying surrounding country is liable to inundation. The Ganges is navigable all the year round, but during February and March the water is often very shallow in places. The second boundary river, the Jumna, first touches upon the District opposite Delhi, and then flows along its south-west border for 50 miles, with a flood velocity of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet per second, and a cold weather velocity of about 18 inches. There is no irrigation from the Jumna, and the navigation is chiefly confined to the rafting of timber and the transport of grain and cotton in small quantities. The bed of the river is composed of micaceous silt, and there are no rapids, or even eddies, except during the rains. Of the internal streams, the Kálí Nadí or Kálindi divides the District into two parts, entering it from Meerut on the north, and, flowing in a tortuous south and south-easterly direction for about 50 miles, passes into Aligarh. In Bulandshahr, the Kálí Nadí is little more than a natural drain to carry off the superfluous water from the surrounding country. It is navigable in the rains by boats of about 4 tons burthen, but it is seldom, if at all, used for this purpose. The Hindan also enters this District from Meerut, and after a winding and irregular course of about 20 miles, falls into the Jumna at Mangrauli village. It flows between high shelving banks, and is not a navigable stream. In the hot weather the water is sometimes so low that not even a small boat could cross it. Other minor streams are the Karon, Patwai, and Chhoiya.

There are no reserved forests in Bulandshahr, but isolated groves of various sorts of fruit and timber trees are numerous. The commonest and most useful tree is the *kakar* (*Acacia arabica*), the wood of which is hard and tough, and used for making agricultural implements, cart-wheels, boxes, etc., and also for burning into charcoal. *Shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*), a well-grained heavy wood, is largely used for beams, planks, and for articles of furniture. *Dhák* (*Butea frondosa*) is mainly used for fuel in the shape of charcoal. The country has been much denuded of trees of late years, owing to the great demand for fuel for the railway. Salt, saltpetre, and *kankar* are the only minerals worthy of notice. The wild animals include hyænas, wolves, antelopes, hog,

and jackals. The *magar* and *gharial*, two species of crocodile, are found in the Ganges and Jumna.

History.—The early traditions of the people assert that the modern District of Bulandshahr formed a portion of the great Pandava kingdom of Hastinapur; and that, after that city was cut away by the Ganges, the tract was administered by a Governor who resided at the ancient town of AHAR. Whatever credence may be placed in these myths, we know from the evidence of inscriptions that the District was inhabited by Gaur Bráhmans, and ruled over by the Gupta dynasty, in the 3rd century of our era. Few glimpses of historic light have been cast upon the annals of this region before the advent of the Muhammadans, with whose approach authentic history begins for the whole of Northern India. In 1018, when Mahmúd of Ghazní arrived at Baran (as the town of Bulandshahr is still officially called to the present day), he found it in possession of a native prince named Hardatta. The presence of so doughty an apostle as Mahmúd naturally affected the Hindu ruler; and accordingly the Rájá himself, and ten thousand followers, came forth, says the Musalmán historian, ‘and proclaimed their anxiety for conversion and their rejection of idols.’ This timely repentance saved their lives and property for the time; but Mahmúd’s raid was the occasion for a great immigration towards the Doáb of many fresh tribes, who still hold a place in the District. In 1193, Kutab-ud-din appeared before Baran, which was for some time strenuously defended by the Dor Rájá, Chandra Sen; but through the treachery of his kinsman Jaipál, the town was at last captured by the Musalmán force. The traitorous Hindu accepted the faith of Islám and the *chaudhri*-ship of Baran, where his descendants still reside, and own some small landed property. The 14th century is marked as the epoch when many of the present tribes inhabiting Bulandshahr first gained a footing in the region. Numerous Rájput adventurers poured into the defenceless country, and expelled the unhappy Meos from their lands and villages. This was also the period of the early Mughal invasions; so that the condition of the Doáb was one of extreme wretchedness, caused by the combined ravages of pestilence, war, and famine, with the usual concomitant of internal anarchy. The firm establishment of the Mughal dynasty gave a long respite of tranquillity and comparatively settled government to these harassed Provinces. They shared in the administrative reconstruction of Akbar, and their annals are devoid of incident during the flourishing reigns of his great successors. Here, as in so many other Districts, the proselytizing zeal of Aurangzeb has left permanent effects in the large number of Musalmán converts; but Bulandshahr was too near the court to afford much opportunity for those rebellions and royal conquests which make up the staple elements of Mughal history. During the disastrous decline of the Imperial

power, which dates from the accession of Bahádur Sháh in 1707, the country round Baran was a prey to the same misfortunes which overtook all the more fertile Provinces of the Empire. The Gújars and Játs, always to be found in the foreground upon every occasion of disturbance, exhibited their usual turbulent spirit ; and many of their chieftains carved out principalities from the villages of their neighbours. But as Baran was at this time a dependency of Koil, it has no proper history of its own during the 18th century, apart from that of ALIGARH DISTRICT. Under the Maráthá rule it continued to be administered from Koil ; and when that town, with the adjoining fort of Aligarh, was captured by the British forces in 1803, Bulandshahr and the surrounding country were incorporated into the newly-formed District. In 1817, they were transferred from Aligarh to Meerut ; and in 1823, the present District was organized by the union of the northern *pargands* of Aligarh with the southern ones of Meerut. From that date till 1857, the peaceful course of history in Bulandshahr is only marked by the opening of the Ganges Canal.

The Mutiny of 1857 was ushered in at Bulandshahr by the revolt of the 9th Native Infantry, which took place on the 21st of May, shortly after the outbreak at Aligarh. The officers were compelled to fly to Meerut, and Bulandshahr was plundered by a band of rebellious Gújars. Its recovery was a matter of great importance, as it lies on the main road from Agra and Aligarh to Meerut. Accordingly, a small body of volunteers was despatched from Meerut for the purpose of retaking the town, which they were enabled to do by the aid of the Dehra Gurkhás. Shortly afterwards, however, the Gurkhás marched off to join General Wilson's column, and the Gújars once more rose in rebellion. Walidád Khán of Málágarh put himself at the head of the movement, which proved strong enough to drive the small European garrison out of the District. From the beginning of July till the end of September, Walidád held Bulandshahr without opposition, and commanded the whole line of communications with Agra. Meantime, internal feuds went on as briskly as in other revolted Provinces, the old proprietors often ousting by force the possessors of their former estates. But on the 25th of September, Colonel Greathed's flying column set out from Gháziábád for Bulandshahr, whence Walidád was expelled after a sharp engagement, and forced to fly across the Ganges. On the 4th of October, the District was regularly occupied by Colonel Farquhar, and order was rapidly restored. The police were at once reorganized, while measures of repression were adopted against the refractory Gújars, many of whom still continued under arms. It was necessary to march against the rebels in Etah early in 1858, but the tranquillity of Bulandshahr itself was not again disturbed. Throughout the progress of the Mutiny, the Játs almost all took the side of Govern-

ment, while the Gújars and Musalmán Rájputs proved our most irreconcilable enemies.

Population.—The earliest attempt to enumerate the inhabitants of Bulandshahr, made in 1847, returned a total population of 699,093 souls, or 376 to the square mile. In 1853, the District was included in the first regular Census; when it was then found, in spite of a considerable transfer of villages to Delhi and Aligarh, that the population amounted to 778,342 souls, or 427 to the square mile. At the Census of 1865, the numbers had risen to 800,431 souls. In 1872, the returns showed a further advance to the total of 936,667, being an increase of 136,236 persons in the short space of seven years. During the next nine years, however, the population showed a decrease, the Census of 1881 returning the numbers at 924,822, or 11,845 less than in 1872. This decrease is attributable to a very severe fever epidemic in 1879, which is said to have more than decimated the population. The Census of 1881 was taken over an area of 1914.9 square miles, the returns giving the number of males at 491,958, and the females at 432,864; total, 924,822, residing in 1510 villages and 96,446 houses. Proportion of males in total population, 52.1 per cent. The preponderance of males is due, in part, to the former prevalence of female infanticide; but this practice, which all the vigilance of Government was long unable to suppress, is now disappearing under the stringent regulations put in force under the Act of 1870. With regard to religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 748,256, or 80.9 per cent.; Musalmáns, 175,458, or 19.1 per cent.; Jains, 967; Sikhs, 24; Pársís, 2; and Christians, 115. Amongst Hindus, the Bráhmans muster very strongly, the enumeration disclosing as many as 93,265 persons belonging to the sacred class. They hold between them a large number of entire villages, besides being part-proprietors of many others. A portion of one Bráhmaṇ clan in this District has embraced Islám, though still maintaining its relationship with the Hindu branch. The second great class, that of the Rájputs, is also numerous, being returned at 77,132 souls. They are the most important landowning element in Bulandshahr, holding altogether 464 entire villages, together with shares in several more. Badgújars are their wealthiest clan, owning nearly one-seventh of the total area. A large branch of them are Musalmáns, who, till quite lately, have kept up many Hindu customs in their marriage ceremonies and other social observances. To the present day they will not slaughter cattle, and retain the Hindu prefix of *Thákur* or *Kunwár* as a title of respect. The Bháls, another Rájput clan, are also divided into a Hindu and a Musalmán branch. It is noticeable in each case that the Muhammadan families are wealthier and more powerful than their kinsmen of the ancient faith. The Baniyás or trading classes number 41,921 persons, and hold 36 villages, nearly all of which have

been acquired under British rule. But the great mass of the population in Bulandshahr, as in all parts of the North-Western Provinces, belongs to the classes enumerated in the Census returns as 'other Hindu castes,' aggregating 535,938 souls. Amongst them, the most numerous are the Chamárs (151,541 persons), after whom come the Játs (53,380), Gújars (50,710), Lodhás (50,150), and Bhangís (30,531). The Musalmáns, who form an important element in the proprietary body, are classified according to sect into Sunnis, 168,305, and Shiás, 7153. Among the Muhammadans are included 20,075, originally belonging to Hindu castes, of whom upwards of three-fourths, or 15,902, are Rájputs by race. Of the Christian population of 115, 18 are natives, and the remainder Europeans or Eurasians. One large estate of 63 villages is in the hands of a Eurasian family. The total agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 515,648. The District contains 12 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, KHURJA, 27,190; BULANDSHAHR or BARAN, 17,863; SIKANDARABAD, 16,479; SHIKARPUR, 10,708; JAHANGIRABAD, 10,319; ANUPSHAHR, 8234; DIBAI, 8216; SIYANA, 6532; JEWAR, 6219; GALAOTHI, 5404; AURANGABAD, 5210; and DANKAUR, 5122. These figures show an urban population of 127,496 persons, leaving 797,326 for the rural population. The 1510 villages and towns in Bulandshahr are thus classified in the Census Report, according to population:—335 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 599 from two to five hundred; 397 from five hundred to a thousand; 127 from one to two thousand; 29 from two to three thousand; 11 from three to five thousand; 7 from five to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; 2 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 upwards of twenty thousand inhabitants. The language in use in the country districts is Hindí, the Musalmáns of the towns speak Urdu, and the town Hindus use a dialect compounded of both. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census Report classified the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 8847; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1793; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7969; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 183,496; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 77,209; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 38,304 labourers, 29 men of rank and property without occupation, and 174,401 unspecified, including male children), 212,734.

Agriculture.—During the last thirty-five years, the cultivated area of Bulandshahr has increased by nearly 100,000 acres, and the margin of cultivable soil is still being rapidly reclaimed. In 1882, the land under tillage amounted to 857,445 acres, almost equally divided between spring and rain crops. Wheat, barley, and gram are the staple products.

of the *rabi* harvest; and common millets and pulses of the *kharif*. Indigo is also widely cultivated, forming one of the main commercial crops; and cotton, safflower, and tobacco are grown in all parts of the District. In 1882, the acreage under the principal crops was returned as follows:—*Jodr* and *bájrâ*, 210,837 acres; wheat and barley, 287,803 acres; cotton, 69,685 acres; Indian corn, 64,526 acres; pulses, 51,468 acres. The advantages of irrigation are thoroughly appreciated in Bulandshahr, more than one-fourth of the cultivated area being artificially supplied with water. In 1882, as much as 308,110 acres were thus treated, and since that period the amount of irrigated land has increased. Canals alone afforded water to 148,141 acres; but even this is far from showing the whole benefit derived from these undertakings, as they have been instrumental in promoting the growth of valuable export products, such as cotton, indigo, and oil-seeds, rather than cheap food-stuffs. Canal irrigation is both cheaper and better than the old method of watering from wells, and by its comparative certainty is eliminating the element of chance from the agriculture of the District. Manuring is little practised, as the expense is beyond the limited means of the cultivators. A model farm was established near Baran for five years for purposes of experiment. Its results were in favour of the belief that under existing circumstances the native methods, developed and improved, are the best for the country and the people. The condition of the peasantry has been greatly ameliorated of late years, and they are now as comfortably off as in any portion of the Doáb. Few cultivators are in debt to the village bankers, nor are those functionaries acquiring landed property so rapidly as in other Districts. About one-half of the cultivated area is held by tenants-at-will, the remainder being divided between proprietary and hereditary cultivators. Bulandshahr is one of the few Districts in the North-Western Provinces which possesses a territorial aristocracy, residing upon their ancestral estates, and exercising over the people a larger influence, for good or for evil, than any absentee could hope to acquire. Thirteen of them have been invested with magisterial powers within the limits of their respective *pargands*. Rents are payable both in kind and in money, the hereditary cultivators having in either case a prescriptive right to lower rates than the general body of tenants. Best irrigated lands bring in £1, 4s. per acre; best unirrigated, 14s.: outlying lands—irrigated, 8s. to 10s. 6d. per acre; unirrigated, 3s. 6d. to 5s. The best agriculturists are the Lodhás, Játs, and Jhajhars, and next to them the Tagas and Ahírs. The worst cultivators are the Gújars and Mewátis, but the former are steadily improving. The rise in price of agricultural produce has induced cultivators to extend the size of their holdings, and competition for land has consequently become very great. The ordinary prescriptive

rate for lands paying rent in kind is one-third; and the rate for ordinary cultivators, one-half of the produce. This is usually paid in grain, an allowance being made for all other products grown on the land beside the principal crop. Under another system of division, the standing crop is appraised, and the landlord takes his share in kind, or its equivalent in money,—either one-half, two-fifths, or one-third, etc. Wages and prices have nearly doubled since 1850. Agricultural labourers are usually paid in grain to the value of about 3d. a day, rising at harvest time to as much as 6d.; women obtain two-thirds and boys one-half of a man's wages. Skilled labourers obtain from 12s. to £1, 10s. a month, the wages of stonemasons occasionally rising as high as £2. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in 1882: Gram, 5s. 2d. per cwt.; *bājrá*, 5s. per cwt.; *joár*, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat, 5s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Bulandshahr suffered in former times from famines due to continued drought; but there is reason to hope that the spread of irrigation has removed this cause of apprehension for the future. The people still remember with horror the scarcity of 1837, which has indelibly imprinted its miseries on the popular mind. Another great famine, also due to drought, occurred in 1860, when the Bulandshahr branch canal was constructed as a relief work, giving occupation to 2500 able-bodied persons; and in addition gratuitous assistance was afforded to 11,396 weak or aged applicants. The District was affected even more severely than its neighbours by the rainless season of 1868–69; but, owing doubtless to the great increase of irrigation since 1860, it showed no signs of famine. There were large reserves of grain in store, and exportation went on briskly towards the centres of distress. Prices of course rose greatly above the average, *joár* being quoted at 12 *seers* the rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; but no relief works were needed, and no demand for employment existed. As a rule, when grain rises as high as 8 *seers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt., measures of relief should be adopted. However, as canal irrigation is still advancing, such a necessity will probably never again arise. The communications also are excellent, and amply suffice for all purposes of importation, if the local crops should ever prove insufficient for the wants of the inhabitants.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief exports from Bulandshahr are safflower and indigo, but large quantities of cereals are also despatched eastward and westward. The District not only supplies its own needs in the consumption of cotton, but has a surplus of about 36,000 cwts. available for exportation. Anúpsahr is a large depôt for wood and bamboos. The manufactures are unimportant, consisting chiefly of fine muslin at Sikandarábád, printed cloths at Jahángírábád, and carpets at Jewar. Saltpetre is produced in the crude state at 95 factories.

scattered through the country villages. Common salt was formerly made in large quantities, but its manufacture is now prohibited by law. The country trade is carried on at the local markets, of which the most largely frequented is at Dibhái. There the exports of country cloth in 1882, as registered at the railway station, averaged 700 *maunds* a month. The only religious fair of any importance is that held at Anúpsahr, which attracts about 50,000 people from the neighbouring Districts. On the same day, the full moon of the month of Kártik, nearly an equal number assemble at Rájghát, but all come and return by train, and do not stay more than one day. The annual horse show and District fair, held at the head-quarters station in the last week of February, is said to be the most prosperous assembly of its kind in the North-Western Provinces, and is visited by people from all parts of India. Prizes are given to the value of about £400. The main line of the East Indian Railway passes through the whole length of Bulandshahr, with stations at DADRI, SIKANDARABAD, CHOLA, and KHURJA. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway also traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, crossing the Ganges at Rájghát, where it has a station, and another at Dibhái. The roads are in excellent order; and the Ganges, the Jumna, and the canals are all employed as highways for commercial purposes, so that there is no lack of land or water carriage.

Administration.—No statistics as to the public accounts of this District in the early period of British rule can now be recovered, as the records were destroyed during the Mutiny. In 1860–61, the revenue amounted to £222,300, of which £109,866, or nearly one-half, was contributed by the land-tax. In the same year, the expenditure on all items was £102,162, or less than half the revenue. In 1870–71, the receipts had risen to £250,447, of which £124,121, or almost exactly one-half, was the product of the land-tax. In 1881, the land revenue remained practically the same. This increase of revenue is largely due to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. Meanwhile, the expenditure had fallen to £100,163, or two-fifths of the receipts. The District is ordinarily administered by a Magistrate-Collector and two Assistants, a Deputy Collector, four *tahsildárs*, and two *munsifs*. In 1880–81, there were 29 magisterial and 9 civil courts. The regular and municipal police numbered 879 men of all grades in 1880, maintained at a cost of £8848, of which £6522 were contributed from imperial and £2326 from local funds. There was thus 1 regular policeman to every 2·20 square miles and to every 1052 inhabitants. This force was supplemented by 1974 *chaukidárs* or village watchmen, whose pay, defrayed by the landlords or villagers, amounts to an estimated sum of £7153 annually. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2853 men, giving

one man to every 323 inhabitants and to every '67 of a square mile. The District contains one jail, the average number of prisoners in which was 964 in 1850, 127 in 1860, 137 in 1870, and 224 in 1880. In 1860, the persons admitted numbered 1321; in 1870, 735; and in 1880, 1716. The total number of persons convicted for all offences, except sanitary cases, great or small, in 1880, was 724, being 1 criminal to every 1121 inhabitants. Education has made rapid advances of late years. In 1845, there were only 187 indigenous schools in Bulandshahr, with a total of 1813 pupils. In 1860, the number of schools had risen to 388, while the roll of pupils amounted to 5882, and the sum expended on education to £2334. In 1871, though the number of schools had decreased to 301, the children under instruction reached the total of 6955, and the sum expended had risen to £3177. In 1880-81, the number of schools under Government inspection, and maintained or supported by the Sate, was 130, with a total of 3938 pupils on the rolls on the 31st March 1882. There were also in the same year 305 elementary indigenous schools, at present (1883) receiving no Government grant-in-aid and uninspected, attended by 3185 pupils, making a total of 435 schools and 7123 pupils. The District is sub-divided into 4 *tahsils* and 13 *parganás*, with an aggregate, in 1882, of 2644 estates. The average land revenue paid by each estate amounted in that year to £46, 18s. 1d. There are 4 municipalities in the District—namely, Khurja, Bulandshahr, Anúpsahr, and Sikandarábád. In 1880-81, their total income amounted to £5599, and their expenditure to £5346.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bulandshahr is very variable, being cold in winter and hot in summer, dry during the sultry spring winds, and extremely moist during the autumn rains. No thermometrical observations have been made in the District. The average rainfall was 32·5 inches in 1867-68, 13·9 in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 21·5 in 1869-70, 32·0 in 1870-71, and 25·18 in 1880, the average rainfall for a period of 30 years being 26·12 inches. Malarious fever is the chief endemic disease of Bulandshahr, being especially prevalent during the rainy season. Small-pox and cholera occasionally appear in an epidemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1880 was 26,201, or 28·33 per thousand of the population; and of these, 25,150 deaths were assigned to fever, and 524 to bowel complaints. Charitable dispensaries are established in the towns of Baran, Khurja, Sikandarábád, and Anúpsahr, with a resident Assistant Surgeon at each of the three first, and at which a total of 34,047 persons received medical treatment in 1881. The natives thoroughly appreciate the advantages of skilful treatment and European medicines. During 1870-71 the cattle of the District suffered severely from an outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease, accompanied by rinderpest. [For further in-

formation regarding Bulandshahr, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. iii. pp. 1 to 194. Also the *Census Report* of 1881, and the *Annual Administration Reports of the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bulandshahr (or *Baran*).—Town and administrative head-quarters of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and a station on the main line of the East Indian Railway. Lat. $28^{\circ} 24' 11''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 54' 15''$ E. Population (1881) 17,863, namely, Hindus, 10,148; Muhammadans, 7600; Jains, 56; Christians, 57; and 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 610 acres. Municipal income (1880–81), £1363; average incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d. per head of population. Lies on the west side of the Kálí Nadí, and consists of an upper and a lower town, the former and more ancient portion occupying the summit of a high and precipitous hill of artificial formation on the river bank, while the latter or modern town stretches over the low-lying ground to the west. Elevation above sea-level, 741 feet. Baran is a place of great antiquity, coins of Alexander the Great and the Indo-Bactrian kings of Upper India being found to the present day in and around the town. Hardatta, the Dor Rájá of Baran, bought off the first Muhammadan invader, Mahmúd of Ghazní, by large presents and apostasy to Islám. Chandra Sen, the last Hindu ruler, died while gallantly defending his fort against Muhammad Ghori. Khwájá Lál Barani, an officer in the Musalmán army who fell in the assault, gives his name to a burial-ground across the river, but not a vestige now remains of any monument to his memory. Sculptured columns of early Hindu character, and other architectural fragments, are not infrequently found when any excavations are made; but there are no buildings of any antiquity *in situ*. The oldest is the tomb of Bahlol Khán, a high officer under the Emperor Akbar, which is close to the Christian cemetery; but, like the Jamá Masjíd or great mosque in the centre of the old town, it is quite plain and unadorned. At the commencement of British rule, Bulandshahr had sunk into utter ruin; there was no *bázár* of any kind, but only a small cluster of houses on the top of the hill, where the village proprietors lived, and a few Chamárs and Lodhás huts at the base. On the administrative head-quarters of the District being fixed here, there was a large influx of officials and people connected with the Courts, and Bulandshahr soon became a fairly thriving and well-to-do little town. The dispensary (built in 1867), and the Anglo-vernacular school with its boarding-house attached, are at the west end of the lower or new town, which there joins immediately on to the Civil Station, containing the Court-houses of the Magistrate-Collector, *munsif's* Court, a public building called the Lowe Memorial in memory of a late Collector, jail, post-office, mission school of the Church of England, canal offices, etc. The *tahsili* buildings, including the *tahsili* school, are on the top of the

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hill, the approach to the latter being by a fine broad staircase from the *ghát* below. Most of the local gentry have substantial houses in the town which they occupy as occasional residences. A handsome bathing *ghát* on the river bank was completed in 1880 at a cost of £1600, raised by public subscription. In connection with the *ghát* is a market-place, in which the lower storey of the double row of shops serves as a massive embankment against a river flood, and its cost amounted to little less than £10,000. A town hall has also been erected at a cost of £2200, defrayed by one of the District gentry. Probably no town in India has undergone so complete a transformation in a few years. In 1878, it was a village of mud-walls and thatched roofs; it is now (1883) a town of brick and carved stone houses.

Bulcherry.—Island on the sea-face of the Sundarbans, Bengal.—*See* BALCHARI.

Buldána.—District of Berár, in the West Berár Division, lying between 19° 51' and 21° 1' 30" N. lat., and 75° 58' 45" and 76° 52' 45" E. long. Extreme length from north to south, about 80 miles; average width, 32 miles. Bounded on the north by the river Púrna, on the south by the Nizám's Dominions, on the east by Akola and Básim Districts (Berár), on the west by the Nizám's Dominions and Khandesh District of the Bombay Presidency. Area, 2804 square miles, of which 2166 square miles were returned in 1880-81 as cultivated, 198 square miles as cultivable, and 440 square miles as uncultivable waste. Population in 1881, 439,763, or 156·8 per square mile of area. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 1010. Land revenue, 1880-81, £94,798; total revenue (gross) £115,194. For fiscal purposes the District is sub-divided into 3 *táluks*, viz. CHIKHLI, MALKAPUR, and MEHKAR.

Physical Aspects.—The southern part of the District forms part of Berár Bálághát, or Berár-above-the-Ghâts. Here the general contour of the country may be described as a succession of small plateaux decreasing in elevation to the extreme south. Towards the eastern side of the District, the country assumes more the character of undulating high lands, favoured with soil of a high quality. The geological formation is trap; a succession of plateaux descends from the highest ridges on the north to the south, where a series of small *ghâts* march with the Nizám's territory. The small fertile valleys between the plateaux are watered by streams during the greater portion of the year, while wells of particularly good and pure water are numerous. These valleys are favourite village sites. The north portion of the District occupies the rich valley of the Púrna.

The soil of the undulating highlands in the east of the District is remarkably fine, and the wheat grown here will bear comparison with any produced in India. The principal river is the PENGANGA, which

rises about 4 miles above DEULGHAT (Dewalghát), in the north-west corner of the District, and flows south-east, passing Mehkar town, into Básiṃ District. The NALGANGA, the VISWAGANGA, and the GHAN rivers, all rising in or close to the Bálághát, and flowing north into the PURNA river, are either entirely dry in the hot weather, or leave only chains of pools. The KATA PURNA enters the District from the west, and after a course of about 30 miles, passes into the Nizám's territory. None of these rivers are navigable. One of the most remarkable physical features of the District is the lake of Lonar, on the most southerly plateau. The circumference of this lake is 5 miles, and it appears to be the crater of an extinct volcano. The salts which it yields are used for washing and drying chintzes, for which purpose they are exported to considerable distances. A temple on its bank is held in great veneration, and is by far the finest specimen of Hindu architecture in Berár.

The area of reserved forest in the District in 1881-82 was 110·2 square miles, and of unreserved forest, 320 square miles. Though in the ravines of the North Gháts, teak saplings exist in great numbers, no large teak trees are found. *Anjan* trees (*Hardwickia binata*) are to be found in most of the ravines, and large numbers of *bábul* coppices are scattered about. Many other varieties of fruit and forest trees, some of the latter yielding lac, gums and dyes, flourish throughout the District. Bears, tigers, leopards, hyænas, *sámbhar*, *nílgái*, and wild hog are met with in the hills, and antelope and spotted deer in the valley of the Púrna, which is often visited by wild hog and *nílgái*; black and grey partridge, quail, and water-fowl are among the smaller game to be obtained, and pea-fowl are found in the hills and on the river banks.

History.—The ancient Hemar Panthi temples to be seen at Deulghát on the Penganga, at Mehkar in the south-east of the District, at Sindhker in the south-west, at Pimpalgáon in the east, and the temple on the Lonar Lake, all attest a state of society of which they are the only ascertained records. It is popularly believed that the rulers were Jains when the valley of the Púrna fell under Muhammadan domination. In 1294, Alá-ud-dín, who became Emperor of Delhi in the following year, invaded the Deccan, and established his authority over Ellichpur and its dependencies. He and his successors gradually extended their kingdom southwards; local revolts disturbed, but did not weaken it; and since 1318, Berár has been virtually under Muhammadan rule. About 1437, Alá-ud-dín, son of Ahmad Sháh Báhmání, attacked and routed the allied forces of the King of Khándesh, and the Gujarát Prince at Rohankher, in the north-west of Buldána District; and the site is still shown where, according to tradition, a great battle was fought. After the Báhmání dynasty came the Imád Sháhís, who ruled from Ellichpur. The

Ahmadnagar dynasty followed; and in 1596, Chānd Bibī, Queen Regent of Ahmadnagar for her son, formally ceded Berār to the Emperor Akbar, who himself visited the Deccan in 1599. His sons, Prince Murād and Prince Dānyāl, were successively appointed viceroys. Mehkar in Buldāna District became one of the *Sarkārs* (administrative divisions) of the *Subahat* or Imperial Province of Berār. After the death of Akbar (1605), Malik Ambar, the Abyssinian representative of the Nizām Shāhī party at Daulatābād, recovered great part of Berār, which he held till his death in 1628; but Shāh Jahān, assisted by the Deshmukh of Sindkher, Lakjī Jádún Ráo, re-established the imperial authority. The origin of the powerful Rájput family of Jádún, Deshmukhs of Sindkher, is uncertain, though they are locally reputed to have come from Karwáli in north Hindustán on the Jumna. In 1630, Lakjī Jádún Ráo, a commander of 10,000 horse in Malik Ambar's time, deserted to Shāh Jahān, and turned the fate of the war against his former master. Thereafter the Jádúns maintained their allegiance to the Mughal emperors, and obtained honours and titles from them. A daughter of this Lakjī Jádún was the mother of Sivajī, the founder of the Maráthá power. During the reign of Aurangzeb, about 1671, the Maráthás, under Pratáp Ráo, Sivajī's general, first exacted *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue. In 1717, they obtained the formal grant of *chauth* and *sardesh mukhi* from the Emperor Farukhsiyar. In 1724, Chin Khilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan under the title of Nizām-ul-Mulk, gained a decisive victory over the Imperial forces under Muháriz Khán, at Shakar Khedla (thenceforward called Fatehkhedla, or 'the field of victory'), south of the Pengangá in Buldāna District. But he could not shake off the Maráthás, who continued to collect revenue for themselves. In 1760, Mehkar was formally ceded to the Peshwá; in 1769, the Nizām was forced to acknowledge himself Vicegerent for the Poona State, and his authority was weakened by the disastrous defeat at Kardla in 1795. Daulat Ráo Sindhiá, and the Bhonslá of Nágpur, were encamped at Malkápur, when they allowed the British Envoy, Colonel Collins, to depart in August 1803. Then followed the First Maráthá war,—Assaye, Argaum (Argáon), and other victories scarcely less important—which before the close of the year crushed the supremacy of the Maráthás. By the partition treaty of 1804, the Nizām received nearly the whole of Berār. General Wellesley, January 1804, mentions Sindkher as a nest of thieves, and represents the condition of the country as deplorable. In 1813, two Maráthá plundering chiefs occupied Fatehkhedla for three months. After the Pindárl war of 1817-18, the treaty of 1822 conferred on the Nizām the country west of the Wardha, and all claims by the Maráthás were extinguished; but general confusion long continued, and petty battles between *samindárs*, rival *tilukdárs*, Rájputs, and Muhammadans, took place at Malkápur,

which was soaked by the Hindus in 1849. A force of Arabs in the service of Báji Ráo, then head of the Jádún family above mentioned, fought a severe battle with the Haidarábád troops in 1851, for which act of rebellion, though disowned by Báji Ráo, his hereditary estates were confiscated, and he himself died a state prisoner in 1856. For several years, the Nizám's Government had failed to provide funds for the payment of the force maintained by the British, in accordance with the treaty of 1800. The settlement of these arrears and of other points in dispute was effected by the treaty of 1853, modified in 1860-61, whereby the territory now known as Berár was assigned to the British.

Population.—The Census of 1867 showed a population of 365,779 persons on an area of 2794 square miles, being 131 per square mile. According to the Administration Report of 1876-77, the population was 404,042, on an area of 2807 square miles; the Census of 1881 returned a total population of 439,763 on an area of 2804 square miles, or 156·8 persons per square mile, thus divided:—Adult males, 141,704; adult females, 132,033; male children under 12 years, 83,539; female children under 12 years, 82,487: total males, 225,243; total females, 214,520. According to religion, Hindus number 405,685; Muhammadans, 30,055; Buddhists and Jains, 3698; Christians, 150; Sikhs, 150; and Pársis, 25. Among Hindus, the number of Bráhmans in 1881 was 10,734; of Kunbís, 177,429; of Mális, 28,897; of Rájputs, 12,018; of Mahars, 47,629; of Banyás, 19,259; and of other Hindu castes, 117,953. The non-Hindu or aboriginal castes or tribes numbered 4464. Among Muhammadans, Sayads numbered 1802; Mughals, 438; Patháns, 6095; Shaikhs, 20,526; others, 1194. The agricultural population was returned at 278,174; the non-agricultural at 161,589.

The principal towns in the District are—DEULGAON RAJA (population 7025), MALKAPUR (8152), NANDURA (6743), CHIKHLI (4396), Dhonegaon (4259), BULDANA (2975), DEULGHAT (3867), MEHKAR (4373), FATEHKHEDLA (3250).

Agriculture.—The District is rich in agricultural produce; in a seasonable year, a many-coloured sheet of cultivation, almost without a break, covers the valley of the Púrna. In the Bálághát also the crops are very fine. Situated as the District is, in the neighbourhood of the great cotton mart of Khámgaón—only a mile and a half beyond its north-eastern border—and nearer to Bombay than the other Berár Districts, with 3 stations of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in its northern *iduk*, markets for its agricultural produce on favourable terms are easily found. The *ráyat* commences preparation of his fields in January; for the surface ploughing must be finished before the intense heat has caked the soil. Sowings for the *kharif* crop are begun with the first rain in

June, and the harvest is gathered in November; the *rabi* crops, sown after the rains, ripen early in March. At this time, the want of labour is much felt, for an unseasonably heavy fall of rain may almost entirely destroy the crops, if not quickly harvested. Rotation of crops is practised; the principle being, that either wheat or gram, or some oil-seed, should intervene between each crop of cotton or *joár*. When the soil is clearly exhausted, it is allowed to lie fallow for a year or two, being manured if manure be obtainable. Deep ploughing is not practised, except to eradicate weeds; for the impression exists, that to thoroughly loosen the soil to any depth is injurious. Sugar-cane is planted in January, and matures in twelve months. For the poppy, land is prepared in September, and sown in October. Guavas and plantains are carefully cultivated, and yams, sweet potatoes, water-melons, and ordinary vegetables flourish in irrigated gardens. Grants-in-aid, to the amount of £376, were made to 22 villages in 1881-82, towards water storage. Applications for such grants are now more frequent than was formerly the case, but most of the cultivation is still unirrigated. The irrigated area in 1880-81 was returned at 13,920 acres, grazing land at 79,819 acres. The cattle of the District are small, but handsome and active. Full-sized horses are scarce. The agricultural stock of the District in 1880-81 comprised 248,911 cows and bullocks; 60,984 buffaloes; 2028 horses; 4905 ponies; 2602 donkeys; 75,792 sheep and goats; 532 pigs; 14,424 carts; and 22,539 ploughs. The system of land tenure is *ráyatwári*. Under native rule, occupancy and payment of revenue were the only titles to land. With the introduction of the Bombay system of survey and settlement, the cultivating revenue-payer has become a proprietor, styled *khútadár*, holding from Government as superior landlord, at a fixed assessment for 30 years—not liable to enhancement on expiry of term, unless on good ground shown. The *khútadár* can sell or mortgage his rights, and also sublet; and he can, if he likes, relinquish his holding at the close of any agricultural year on giving due notice of his intention. The land is often worked by various forms of co-operation, one of which provides a sub-tenant with plough-cattle.

In 1880-81, 1,386,192 acres were assessed and under cultivation—the chief crops being *joár*, 399,644; cotton, 267,269; wheat, 183,380; *bájrá*, 116,184; gram, 62,414; linseed, 28,161; sugar-cane, 2871; *ál*, 13,416; *tur*, 10,354; rice, 9244; pulses, 1498; hemp, 1054; *kurdi*, 44,987; tobacco, 2274; lac, 9374; other products, 54,759. The rent rates per acre are—for land fit for cotton, 1s. 5½d.; wheat, 1s. 10½d.; oil-seeds, 1s. 7d.; *joár*, 1s. 6¾d.; tobacco, 2s. 3d.; opium, 5s.; rice, 2s. 4d.; gram, 2s. 3d. The average produce of land per acre in lbs. are, of cotton (cleaned), 70 lbs.; of wheat, 606; of oil-seeds, 110; of *joár*, 254; of tobacco, 230; of rice, 220; of gram, 376. The prices

(1880-81) were—for clean cotton, 5 lbs. per rupee (2s.); for wheat, 40 lbs. per rupee; for gram, 42 lbs. per rupee; for oil-seeds, 38 lbs. per rupee; for tobacco, 8 lbs. per rupee; for rice, 22 lbs. per rupee; for *jodr*, 82 lbs. per rupee. Plough-bullocks cost £3, 6s. each; buffaloes, £4; sheep, 4s. 6d. to 5s. each. The rate of wages for skilled labour is rs. 3d. a day; for unskilled labour, 4d.

Natural Calamities.—Famines have not unfrequently visited the tract of which Buldána District forms part. In 1803, a great famine occurred, from which Mehkar suffered very severely. Drought and blight affect the crops, and unseasonable rain when the spring crops are standing is sometimes very injurious.

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse cotton cloth is commonly woven. Before the introduction of Manchester piece-goods and the high price of cotton, Mehkar was famous for its *dhotis*, or body cloths. In 1880-81, the number of workers in silk was returned at 82; in cotton, 2779; in wool, 427; in wood, 845; in iron, 646; and 133 in brass and copper; miscellaneous, 913. Steel of fair quality is forged at Deulghát. Weekly markets, some of them very large, are held in several towns and villages. The chief imports are—piece-goods, hardware, metals, spices, salt; exports—cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, and cattle. The District is rich in wheat, and its chief market for this staple is Nándúra, a station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The principal fairs and *bázárs* are held at Deulgáon Rájá, Mehkar, Fatehkheda, Chikhli, Dongáon, Selgáon, Mhusla, Janephal, Lonár, Deulghát, Nándúra, and Malkápur.

Roads and Railways.—There are in Buldána 259 miles of made roads, first, second, and third class. The G. I. P. Railway passes through the north portion of the District, from west to east, for 29 miles, having stations at Malkápur, Biswa Bridge, and Nándúra. There are *seráís* or rest-houses for native travellers at these stations, and rest-houses for Europeans at Malkápur and Nándúra.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with whom are associated Assistants, European and native. An Assistant Commissioner holds his court at Malkápur. There are 3 revenue sub-divisions. The police are under the control of a European District Superintendent; the sanctioned strength of the force in 1880-81 was 75 officers and 374 men, or 1 policeman to every 6 square miles of area. There is one receiving jail; total daily average of inmates in 1881, 55·61. Cost per head yearly, £8, 7s. 6d. on average strength. The proportion of Muhammadan convicts to Muhammadans in the District is more than double that of any other class—a fact which may be attributable to their forming a larger proportionate number of the town population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government, and of Government schools (including 3 girls' schools),

in the same year was 122, having 5546 scholars. The Central Book Depôt of the Province supplies works in Maráthí, English, Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdú. The vernacular tongues are Maráthí and Urdú. No newspaper is printed in the District; and no municipality under Act iv. of 1873 has yet been constituted.

Meteorological and Medical Aspects.—In the north portion of the District, strong and very hot westerly winds prevail from the middle of February till rain falls early in June, and, excepting just about daybreak, they continue throughout the twenty-four hours. In the rainy season, and from October to February, the mornings and nights are pleasantly cool, but the heat in the day is still great. In the Bálághát or south portion of the District, the hot weather is not excessive; the temperature of the rainy season is pleasant; and the cold weather of about three months is most enjoyable, but the great dryness of the air at that time is trying to some constitutions. Highest shade temperature at Buldána in May (1880), 106° F.; lowest in December, 54°. The rainfall in 1880 was 29·17 inches, of which 25·14 inches fell from June to September. The principal diseases are fevers, bowel complaints, worms, and affections of the skin and eyes. The number of deaths registered in 1880 from all causes was 8855, of which number 22 were killed by snake-bite and wild animals. Ratio of reported deaths per 1000 of population, 20·1. The number of births registered in 1880 was 15,455; ratio per 1000 of population, 35·1. In 1880–81, 7 dispensaries and 1 civil hospital afforded medical relief to 24,279 patients; and the number of persons vaccinated by the vaccine department, and at the dispensaries, was 13,356. [For further information regarding Buldána, see the *Berár Gazetteer*, edited by Sir A. C. Lyall (Bombay, 1870). Also the *Census Reports* of 1881; and the *Administration Reports for the Haidarábád Assigned Districts* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bulsár.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 208 square miles. One town and 94 villages; occupied houses, 16,214. Population (1881) 80,707, namely, Hindus, 57,087; Muhammadans, 3784; 'others,' 19,836. Land revenue (1874–75), £24,346. There are no alienated villages in this Sub-division. The whole surface is irregular, seamed with river beds, and rising into rocky uplands. Situated on the sea-coast, the climate is considered healthy at all times of the year, but the eastern parts are feverish at certain seasons. TITHAL, a village on the coast, is much resorted to as a sanitarium by visitors from Bombay. The Sub-division is abundantly watered by rivers and streams. Of the salt marsh lands, extending over about 12,355 acres, 10,664 acres are under reclamation. The rates of assessment introduced in 1869–70 remain in force until 1898–99. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 37 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 523.

Bulsár (*Balsár, Walsád, Valsád*).—Port and town in Surat District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. $20^{\circ} 36' 30''$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 58' 40''$ E., about 40 miles south of Surat and 115 north of Bombay, on the estuary of the navigable though small river Auranga; station on the railway between Surat and Bombay. Population (1881) 13,229, of whom 8927 are Hindus, 2454 Musalmáns, 870 Pársís, 219 Jains, and 48 Christians. Of the Musalmáns, the greater number are Táís, or converted Hindus; they are engaged chiefly in cloth-weaving, and are as a rule well-to-do. Municipal income in 1880–81, £1220, or 2s. $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head of the total population; municipal expenditure in the same year, £1154. Bulsár is well placed for trade both by sea and by land. The total value of its coast trade, exclusive of Government stores, in 1880–81 was £83,810, of which £61,859 represented the value of exports, and £22,196 that of imports. Chief imports—piece-goods, tobacco, wheat, fish, and sugar; exports—timber, grain, molasses, oil, firewood, and tiles. Export of timber is the staple of Bulsár trade. The wood brought from the Dáng forests is exported by sea to Dholera, Bhaunagar, and the other ports of Káthiáwár. There are manufactures of cloth for wearing apparel and for sails, silks for women's robes, and bricks, tiles, and pottery. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional revenue and police offices, the town has a subordinate judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Bulti (*Báltistán* or *Iskardó*).—The name given to the tract of country forming the northern part of KASHMIR (Cashmere), and lying between lat. 34° and 36° N., and between long. 75° and 79° E. Formerly an independent State, but it was some years ago subjugated by the Maharájá of Kashmir, who annexed it to his own dominions.

Bul-Tul (or *Kantal*; also called *Shur-ji-la*).—A pass over the range of mountains bounding the Kashmir valley on the north-east. Lat. $34^{\circ} 14'$ N., long. $75^{\circ} 33'$ E. Forms the water-summit between Kashmir (Cashmere) and Little Tibet; the Drás river (by which name the pass is also sometimes known) flowing from its northern declivity to the Indus, while from its southern slopes runs a feeder of the Sind river, a tributary of the Jhelum (Jehlam) river; elevation above sea-level, 11,300 feet.

Bumawadí (*Bhoomawudee*).—Township in Taung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Sittaung river, and extending north from Shwe-gyin District to the river Thit-nan-tha. The country is level and cultivated along the river bank; but in the interior to the east it is mountainous, and covered with forests of teak and other valuable timber. The chief lakes are Inwon and Zindon, both in the south-west of the township. Population (1881) 13,182. Gross revenue (1881) £2092, of which £581 was land revenue, and £893 capitation tax.

Bund.—Town in Dádri *tahsíl*, Jind State, Punjab. Population (1881) 3884, namely, Hindus, 3569; and Muhammadans, 315; number of occupied houses, 674.

Bundála.—Town in Amritsar *tahsíl*, Amritsar District, Punjab. Lat. $31^{\circ} 32' \text{ N.}$, long. $75^{\circ} 1' 30'' \text{ E.}$; population (1881) 5101, namely, 2192 Sikhs, 1408 Muhammadans, and 1501 Hindus; number of occupied houses, 509. Distant from Amritsar city, 9 miles south-east. Of little commercial importance; chiefly noticeable for its large Sikh population.

Bundáre.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. This is one of the chief Kandh villages, and was formerly a stronghold of the practice of human sacrifice known as Meriah or Junna. The ceremony, as performed at Bundáre up to 1849, consisted in the sacrifice of three human beings,—two to the sun, in the east and west of the village, and one in the centre. A short wooden post having been fixed in the ground, the victim was fastened to it by his long hair, and held out by his legs and arms over a grave dug at the foot of the post. While in this position, the priest hacked the back of the victim's neck with the sacrificial knife, repeating as he did so the following invocation:—‘O mighty Manikso, this is your festal day! The sacrifice we now offer, you must eat; and we pray that our battle-axes may be converted into swords, our bows and arrows into gunpowder and bullets; and if we have any quarrels with other tribes, give us the victory. Preserve us from the tyranny of kings and their officers.’ Then addressing the victim: ‘That we may enjoy prosperity, we offer you as a sacrifice to our god Manikso, who will immediately eat you; so be not grieved at our slaying you. Your parents were aware, when we purchased you from them for 60 rupees, that we did so with intent to sacrifice you; there is therefore no sin on our heads, but on your parents. After you are dead we shall perform your obsequies.’ The victim was then decapitated, the body thrown into the grave, and the head left suspended from the post till devoured by birds. The knife remained fixed to the post till all three sacrifices were performed, when it was removed with much ceremony.

Bundelkhand.—Tract of country in Upper India, which may be defined as lying between the river Jumna (Jamuná) on the north, the Chambal on the north and west, the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságur (Saugor) Divisions of the Central Provinces on the south, and Rewá or Bághelkhand and the Mirzápur Hills on the south and east. Its limits stretch from $23^{\circ} 52'$ to $26^{\circ} 26' \text{ N. lat.}$, and from $77^{\circ} 53'$ to $81^{\circ} 39' \text{ E. long.}$ It comprises the British Districts of Hamírpur, Jálaun, Jhánsi, Lálitpur, and Bánda; the treaty States of Orchha (or Tehri), Datia, and Samthar; and the following States held under *sanads* and grants from the British Government:—Ajaigarh, Alipura; the Hashtbháya *Jágers* of Dhurwái,

Bijna, Tori-Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánka; Baraunda, Báoni, Beri, Bihat, Bijáwar, Charkhári; the Kálinjar *Chaubis*, viz. Paldeo, Pahra, Taráon, Bháisaunda, and Kámta-Rajaula; Chhattarpur, Garrauli, Gaurihar, Jáso, Jígni, Khaniádhána, Lughási, Naigawán, Ribái, Panna, Belhari, and Sarla,—all of which see separately.

Physical Aspects.—The plains of Bundelkhand are diversified by a series of mountains and hills, classed by Franklin, in his *Memoir on the Geology of Bundelkhand*, in three ranges—the Bindáchal, the Panna, and the Bandair. The first of these, which nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above sea-level, commences near Sihonda on the river Sindh, proceeds south-west to Narwár, thence south-east and afterwards north-west to Ajaigarh and Kálinjar, and farther east to Bardarh near the railway between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Allahábád. The plateau which lies behind this range averages 10 or 12 miles in width. The base and lower parts of the hills are of primary formation, chiefly granite and syenite, commonly overlaid by sandstone, but in many cases by trap and formations of volcanic origin. The second range, styled the Panna range, rises to the south of the plateau just described. The summit is a tableland, slightly undulating, with a breadth of about 10 miles, and having an average elevation above the sea, between the Katra Pass and Lohárgáon, of 1050 feet, and between Lohárgáon and the foot of the hills near Pathariya, of about 1200 feet. Where deep ravines allow examination of the formation, the primary rocks are found to be covered by an enormously thick bed of sandstone, which is itself in some places overlaid by rocks of volcanic origin. South-west of this last range, and separated from it by the valley or elongated basin of Lohárgáon is the third or Bandair range, the plateau of which has an average elevation of about 1700 feet above the sea, and on some of the undulations as much as 2000. The Bandair range is generally of sandstone mixed with ferruginous gravel. The extensive basin of Lohárgáon intervening between these ranges is of limestone. The limits of the hilly tract where it bounds the plain are marked by the occurrence of abrupt isolated hills, generally of granitic base, surmounted by sandstone and trap, which, from their steep and nearly inaccessible scarps, form, as in the instances of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, strongholds which have often enabled the hillmen of Bundelkhand to set at defiance the great Empires of India. From these hills numerous streams flow towards the Jumna; among which are the Sindh with its tributary the Páhúj, the Betwá, the Dhásan, the Bírma, the Ken, the Bágain, the Páisuni, and the Tons. All these flow in a general north-easterly direction. The only one of them useful for navigation is the KEN, which, during the rainy season only, is navigable as far as Bánda, a distance of 60 miles. Notwithstanding the numerous streams which traverse the country, the great depth of the channels in the plains, and the thirsty nature of

the soil among the hills, render irrigation highly important ; and to supply means for it, a great number of *jhils*, or small lakes, have been constructed by embanking the lower extremities of valleys.

The mineral resources of Bundelkhand appear very great. Diamonds are found in Panna, but the yield is small and precarious. In the central tracts there is excellent iron, but at present its production is limited by the supply of charcoal, and even now the jungles in the iron Districts are cleared off faster than they can be renewed. When science has taught how the metal can be extracted with sufficient economy of fuel, Bundelkhand iron and steel will doubtless find a market far beyond the present limits of Gwalior, Háthras, Lucknow, and Cawnpur. A small copper mine has been recently worked in Lálitpur.

Population.—The British Districts of Bundelkhand are within the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. The political superintendence of the Native States is vested in the Bundelkhand Agency, subordinate to the Central India Agency, reporting to the Government of India. Of the 31 Native States within the Agency, only three, namely, Orchha or Tehri, Datia, and Samthar, have formal treaties with the British Government. The other chiefs hold their territories under *sanads*, and are bound by *ikrarnámás*, or deeds of fealty and obedience. The table on the opposite page exhibits in brief the area and population of each District and State, but fuller details will be found in the separate articles.

Agriculture.—Except where hill or jungle predominate, as in several of the Native States, the Province is almost solely agricultural. Much of the soil in the Native States is very poor, being chiefly on the hill ranges mentioned above ; but the soil of the plains consists mostly of the ‘black cotton soil,’ which, notwithstanding its dried appearance in hot weather, has the peculiar property of retaining moisture to a marked degree, and yields in favourable seasons luxuriant crops of cotton and cereals. The principal crops are—*al* (*Morinda citrifolia*), which yields the dye used in colouring the reddish-brown cloths known as *kharuá* ; *joár* (*Sorghum vulgare*), *bájrâ* (*Penicillaria spicata*) ; *ál* (*Sesamum orientale*) ; and the millets and pulses known as *kangni*, *kutki*, *sámán*, *arhar*, *moth*, *másh*, *masúrí*, *khesari*, etc. The *singhára*, or water-caltrop, is largely grown in Hamírpur ; and throughout Bundelkhand, the *mahuá* tree (*Bassia latifolia*) is cultivated for its flowers and fruit as well as for its timber.

In Orchha, and throughout the greater part of the whole country, the prevailing plan of land settlement is the native system—under which the State, while recognising in every village a head-man with certain advantages, yet keeps the property of the soil in its own hands, acts as

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AREA, POPULATION, ETC. OF EACH DISTRICT AND STATE IN
BUNDELKHAND, IN 1881.

BRITISH DISTRICTS.

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns and villages.	Number of occupied houses.	Total population	Males.	Females.	Average density per square mile.
Hamirpur, . .	2,288	755	83,544	507,337	259,778	247,559	221·6
Jalaun, . . .	1,469	857	66,734	418,142	216,145	201,997	284·5
Jhansi, . . .	1,567	625	54,404	333,227	172,884	160,343	212·6
Lalitpur, . .	1,947	670	34,181	249,088	129,799	119,289	127·9
Banda, . . .	3,061	1166	123,393	698,608	354,377	344,231	221·6
Total, . . .	10,332	4073	362,256	2,206,402	1,132,983	1,073,419	213·5
NATIVE STATES.							
*Orchha (Tehri),	2,015	677	56,139	311,514	162,611	148,903	161·7
Datia, . . .	837	454	29,396	182,508	96,298	86,300	218·3
Samthar, . .	174	88	7,131	38,633	20,403	18,230	222·3
Dhurwái, . .	†	†	†	1,598	808	790	†
Bijna, . . .	†	†	†	2,084	1,096	988	†
Tori-Fatehpur,	†	†	†	10,631	5,299	5,332	†
Alipura, . .	802	323	14,076	81,454	42,409	39,045	101·5
Alipura, . .	69	26	2,312	14,891	7,929	6,962	214·4
Patiári-Banka,	4	1	216	1,049	520	529	226·0
Baraunda, . .	238	66	3,320	17,283	8,821	8,462	72·5
Baoni, . . .	117	52	2,970	17,055	8,688	8,367	146·0
Beri,	28	5	738	4,985	2,599	2,386	179·0
Bihat, . . .	13	8	632	4,704	2,294	2,410	358·5
Bijáwar, . .	973	298	21,877	113,285	60,356	52,929	106·3
Charkhári, .	787	287	24,259	143,015	74,448	68,567	181·6
Paldeo, . . .	150	62	4,132	8,824	4,521	4,303	144·3
Pahra, . . .				4,016	2,009	2,007	
Taráon, . . .				3,163	1,635	1,528	
Bháisaunda, .				4,073	2,079	1,994	
Kamta-Rayaula,				1,543	858	685	
Chhattarpur, .	1,169†	315†	27,603†	164,369	86,148	78,221	143·4
Garrauli, . .	25	16	913	4,976	2,584	2,392	199·0
Gaurihar, . .	73	14	1,903	10,691	5,577	5,114	147·0
Jaso,	75	57	1,775	8,050	4,022	4,028	107·5
Jigni, . . .	21	6	510	3,427	1,675	1,752	165·7
Khaniádhána,	§	§	§	13,494	7,089	6,405	§
Ribáí,	7	4	483	3,365	1,751	1,614	442·7
Lughási, . .	47	12	936	6,159	3,194	2,965	130·5
Panna, . . .	2,568	868	45,414	227,306	118,349	108,957	88·5
Belhári, . .				3,331	1,829	1,502	
Saríla, . . .	35	10	864	5,014	2,500	2,514	141·1
Total States,	10,227	3649	247,559	1,416,580	740,399	676,181	138·5
Grand Total,	20,559	7722	609,815	3,622,982	1,873,382	1,749,600	176·2

* Area, towns, and number of houses include those for Tori-Fatehpur, Dhurwái, and Bijna.

† Area, towns, and houses included in the figures for Orchha.

‡ Figures include the area, villages, and houses for Belhári.

§ Figures included in the Census with those for Gwalior.*

|| Area, villages, and houses included in the figures for Orchha.

Sentence continued from p. 152.]

banker and seed-lender for the cultivators, and generally fixes its demand for revenue in proportion to produce or area cultivated. The railway from Jabalpur to Allahábád now creates a demand for various local products for about 100 miles from the line, and through its means, connections with the Bombay trade are springing up; when the connecting country roads are completed, much improvement may be expected. The climate in the plains is frequently sultry, and the heat is great. The prevailing wind from October to May is south-west, that is, up the Gangetic valley; during the other months the wind frequently comes down the valley.

At Nowgong a British garrison is stationed, consisting of 1 battery of artillery, 2 companies of British infantry, 3 troops of Native cavalry, and the head-quarters and wing of a Native infantry regiment. The Bundelkhand Rájikúmar College is established near Nowgong for the education of the sons of chiefs; in 1881, seventeen youths of noble family were being educated there.

History.—According to local tradition, the Gonds were the earliest colonists of Bundelkhand. To them succeeded the Chandel Rájputs, under whose supremacy the great irrigation works of Hamírpur District, the forts of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, and the noble temples of Kharúáhu and Máhoba, were constructed. The whole Province contains ruins, large tanks, and magnificent temples, built chiefly of hewn granite and carved sandstone, which are supposed to date back to this epoch. Ferishta relates that in the year 1021 A.D., the Chandel Rájá marched at the head of 36,000 horse, 45,000 foot, and 640 elephants, to oppose Mahmúd of Ghazní, whom, however, he was obliged to conciliate with rich presents. In the year 1183, Parmal Deo, the twentieth ruler in succession from Chandra Varma, the founder of the dynasty, was defeated by Prithwi Rájá, ruler of Ajmere and Delhi. After the overthrow of Parmal Deo, the country was exposed to anarchy and to Muhammadan invasions until the close of the 14th century, when the Bundelas, a sub-division of the Garhwa tribe of Rájputs, established themselves on the right bank of the Jumna. They appear to have settled first at Mau, and then, after taking Kálinjar and Kálpí, to have made Máhoni their capital. About 1531, Rájá Rudra Pratáp founded the city of Orchha, and greatly consolidated and extended the kingdom. The Bundelas became the most powerful among the tribes west of the Jumna; and from this time the name of Bundelkhand may with justice be given to the whole tract of country. Shortly afterwards, the power of the Muhammadans began to grow threatening; and Bir Singh Deo, the great-grandson of the founder of Orchha, was compelled to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Mughal Empire. Champat Rái, however, another chief of the Bundela tribe, held out in the rugged countries

bordering on the Betwa, and harassed the Muhammadans by his rapid predatory forays.

The son of Champat Rái, Chattar Sál, continued his father's career with greater eventual success; and, being elected principal leader and chief of the Bundelas, commenced operations by the reduction of the forts in the hills towards Panna. He wasted the country held by his enemies in every direction, and avoiding a general action, managed by ambuscades, aided by his intimate knowledge of the country, to cut off or elude the imperial troops. He captured Kálinjar, and, making that his stronghold, acquired authority over territory yielding nearly a million sterling per annum. In 1734, however, he was so hard pressed by Ahmad Khán Bangash, the Pathán chief of Farukhábád, that he was forced to seek aid from the Maráthás. The Peshwá, Báji Ráo, promptly embraced this opportunity of establishing his ascendancy in Bundelkhand; he surprised and defeated Ahmad Khán, and rescued the Bundela Rájá from his perilous position. He was rewarded by a fort and District in the neighbourhood of Jhánsi, and by a grant of the third part of Eastern Bundelkhand. The Peshwá made over his portion, subject to a moderate tribute, to a Bráhman called Kási Pandit, whose descendants held it until it lapsed to the East India Company. About the same time, Jhánsi was wrested by the Peshwá from the Rájá of Orchha, and entrusted to a *subáhdár*, whose descendants retained it till a recent date. The two remaining shares of the possessions of Chattar Sál continued to be held in small portions by his numerous descendants, or by the nominal adherents and rebellious servants of the declining branches of the family.

The anarchy and petty wars thus ensuing made an opening for Ali Bahádur (a grandson of Báji Ráo by a Muhammadan concubine), who had quarrelled with Madhují Sindhiá, whose troops he had formerly led. After a long and severe contest, he succeeded in establishing his authority over the greater part of the Province. The chief resistance he met with was at Kálinjar, at the siege of which place he died in 1802, after having concluded an arrangement with the Court of Poona (Púna), by which the sovereign and paramount right of the Peshwá over all his conquests in Bundelkhand was declared and acknowledged. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, the spiritual head and military commander of a large body of devotees, who had great influence in the District, professed at first his intention of supporting the right of Shamsher Bahádur, the son of Ali Bahádur, who happened to be absent in Poona at the time of his father's death.

About this time the declared hostility of the subordinate chiefs of the Maráthá Empire to the arrangements of the treaty of Bassein—by which, among other advantages, the British Government acquired territory in Bundelkhand yielding £361,600 a year—occasioned a formal declaration

on the part of the British Government of their intention of maintaining the provisions of that treaty ; and this declaration was immediately followed by offensive operations on the part of Sindhiá and the Rájá of Berár, and equally hostile, though more secret, measures of aggression on the part of Holkar. Part of the Maráthá plan of operations was a predatory incursion into British territory from Bundelkhand, to be headed by Shamsher Bahádur. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, foreseeing in the success of this scheme a diminution of his own authority in Bundelkhand, determined to abandon the Maráthá interest, and to seek his own personal aggrandizement by assisting in the transfer of the Province to the British. An agreement was consequently made, by which the Rájá was granted a tract of territory yielding 20 *lákhs* of rupees (say £200,000) for the maintenance of a body of troops in the service of the British Government, as well as a *jágir* in consideration of his co-operation in the establishment of British authority in Bundelkhand. The British Government were thus enabled easily to bring a force into Bundelkhand for the decision of the contest, while Himmat Bahádur received territory more than double the area of his original possessions. These lands were resumed on his death, and *jágirs* and pensions assigned to his family. Shamsher Bahádur was quickly defeated by a force under Col. Powell, assisted by the troops of Himmat Bahádur ; and he was content to accept a provision of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000) a year from the British Government, with permission to reside at Bánda. On his death in 1823, he was succeeded by his brother Zulfikár Alí.

To him succeeded Alí Bahádur, who joined in the rebellion of 1857, and was therefore deprived of the pension of 4 *lákhs* a year, and placed under surveillance at Indore. He died in 1873, and pensions amounting to £120 were assigned to the family. Of the territory ceded by the Peshwá, the British Government retained in its own possession lands on the banks of the Jumna, yielding about 14 *lákhs* of rupees (£140,000), exclusive of the territory granted to Himmat Bahádur. On the extinction of the Peshwá's independence in 1818, all his sovereign rights in Bundelkhand finally passed to the British. Of the Bundelkhand States, Jálaun, Jhánsi, Jáitpur, and Khaddi have lapsed to the Government ; and Chirgáon (one of the Hashtgarhi *jágirs*), Purwa, one of the Kálinjar Chaubis (or shares held in the Kálinjar district by representatives of the Chaubi family), Bijerághogarh, and Tiroha have been confiscated. The States of Sháhgarh and Bánpur were also confiscated on account of the rebellion of the chiefs in 1857. Bánpur was claimed by Sindhiá as forming part of the Chanderi district conquered by the Gwalior Darbár in 1831. The claim was not admitted, but the Bánpur territory has been made over to Sindhiá under arrangements connected with the treaty of 1860. [For further information regarding Bundelkhand, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western*

Provinces, vol. i., by E. T. Atkinson, Esq., C.S., B.A. (Allahábád, 1874). Also the *Settlement Reports for Jhánsi, Jálaun, Lálitpur, and Hamirpur Districts.*]

Búndi (*Boondee*).—Native State of Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Haraoti and Tonk Agency, subordinate to the Agent to the Governor-General of India for the States of Rájputána. The State lies between $24^{\circ} 59' 50''$ and $25^{\circ} 59' 30''$ N. latitude, and $75^{\circ} 18'$ and $76^{\circ} 21' 35''$ E. longitude, and is bounded on the north by the States of Jaipur and Tonk, on the east and south by Kotah, and on the west by Udaipur (Oodeypore). Area, 2300 square miles. Length 70 miles, and breadth about 43 miles. Population in 1881, 254,701, or 110 8 per square mile. Revenue, £60,000.

The territory of Búndi may be roughly described as an irregular rhombus, traversed throughout its whole length from south-west to north-east by a double range of hills, constituting the central Búndi range, dividing the country into two almost equal portions. On the south, the river Chambal forms, for very nearly the whole distance, the natural boundary between Búndi and Kotah. For many miles the precipitous scarp on the southern face of this central range forms an almost impassable barrier between the plain country on either side. In the centre of the range, commanding the pass through which runs the only high road from north to south, lies the chief town of the State, Búndi. The highest elevation of the range is 1793 feet, while the height of the capital is 1426 feet above the sea, and above the lowland below it is about 600 feet. Besides the Búndi pass, the only other gaps through this range are one between Jainwás and Búndi, through which the direct road from Tonk passes; and another between Rámgarh and Khátgarh, where the Mej river has cut a channel for itself from the northern to the southern side. The northern plain lies exclusively upon a bed of slate, shale, and clay slate; while the southern is rich in alluvial soil. These peculiarities of surface give a totally opposite character to the river-beds of the two basins.

Beyond the northern boundary of Búndi proper, are several outlying portions of territory belonging to the State. The largest is that of which Garh is the chief town. Large tracts of the State are woodland, consisting chiefly of *sál*, from which a gum exudes which is bartered, weight for weight, against flour, by the Bhíls and others. A fine tree growing near streams is the *mulkarai*, which attains a great height, perfectly straight throughout, with a diameter of from 12 to 15 inches, prettily grained, and well adapted for neat furniture.

Almost the only drainage channel of Búndi is the Mej river, which rises in the Meywár territory at an elevation of about 1700 feet above sea-level. It enters the State near the village of Nagar, and after a course of 92 miles within it, falls into the Chambal. The Mej

irrigates both the northern and southern basins; its chief tributary in the former is the Bájáwás, or Bajáén; in the latter, the Kurál. The length of the Bajáén is about 35 miles. The Kurál, lying for its whole length in the rich alluvial soil of south-eastern Búndi, has numerous villages along its banks. There are no natural lakes in Búndi; the two largest sheets of water, artificially enclosed, are at Dugári and Hindoli. The history of the Búndi State is the history, so far as it can be extracted from chronicles and genealogies, of the family of the ruling chief, and of the fortunes of his clan in settling themselves in this part of India. The chiefs belong to the Hárá sept of the great clan of the Chauhán Rájputs, and the country occupied by them for many centuries is called Háráoti. The first Maháráo Rájá with whom the British Government had any intercourse was Umed Singh, who gave most efficient assistance to Colonel Monson's army during his retreat before Holkar in 1804, bringing down on himself the vengeance of Holkar in consequence.

From that time up to 1817, the Maráthás and Pindáris constantly ravaged the State, exacting tribute and assuming supremacy. The territory of Búndi was so situated as to be of great importance during the war of 1817, in cutting off the retreat of the Pindáris. The Maháráo Rájá of the time, Bithir Singh, early accepted the British alliance, and a treaty was concluded with him on the 10th of February 1818. Although his forces were inconsiderable, he co-operated heartily with the British Government; and he was rewarded by a part of Pátan-Keshorai, Holkar's rights over this territory being commuted into an annual payment of £3000, made by the British Government to him. In 1844, Sindhiá transferred his two-thirds share of Pátan-Keshorai to the British, as part of the territory ceded in trust for the support of the Gwalior Contingent; and an agreement was made by which it was handed over to Búndi on payment of £8000 a year. The Maháráo Rájá proving uncertain during the Mutiny of 1857, friendly intercourse with him was broken off, and not resumed till 1860. The position of Búndi is now that of a Protected State, acknowledging the supremacy of the British Government. The chief is absolute ruler in his own territory, pays a tribute of £12,000 to the British Government, and receives a salute of 17 guns. The military force of the State consists of 590 horse, 2282 infantry, 18 field and 70 other guns. The chief bears the title of Maháráo Rájá.

The Census of 1881 gave a total population for Búndi of 254,701, of whom 133,103 were males and 121,598 females, occupying 60,565 houses in 2 towns and 840 villages, or an average of 4.20 persons in each house. By religion, Hindus numbered 242,107; Muham-madans, 9477; Jains, 3101; Sikhs, 9; and Christians, 7. According to castes and sects, Bráhmans were returned at 23,025; Rájputs, 9274;

Baniyás, 15,406; Gújars, 30,377; Játs, 2881; Ahírs, 1310; Mínás, 35,982; Bhíls, 6554; Chamárs, 19,278; Dhákurs, 7103; other Hindu castes, 94,018.

The total revenue of Búndi State is estimated at £101,400, of which about £85,000 is derived from the land. The assignments, allotments, and endowments diminish by about £35,000 the land revenue demand of the treasury, leaving the effective income of the State at about £66,400, of which about £6400 comes from customs. For purposes of administration the State is divided into 10 *pargands*, viz. Barodia, Bánsi, Nainwah, Tamaidi, Kárwár, Lakheri, Ganidoli, Keshorai-Pátan, Loecha, and Sillor. These again are sub-divided into 22 *táluks*, each presided over by an officer called a *tálukdár*, who exercises revenue, criminal, and civil jurisdiction within his limits. There are no police or police stations in the State. Sanitary arrangements are not considered in any of the towns or villages. The chief crops are *jodr*, maize, barley, wheat, and other grains, pulses of various kinds, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, opium, and betel-leaf. The cultivated area and cultivable land cannot be given exactly, as it varies greatly each year; it may be approximately put down at 1,000,000 acres. Each village has a *pátel*, a *chaukidár*, and a *patwári*.

The main road through the State is from Deoli Cantonment, through the Maidak Dara pass, towards Kotah and Jháláwar. The road from Tonk to Deoli, through the Ganesho Ghati pass, crosses the north-eastern corner of the State. Over the rest of the country there are mere tracks, which serve the purpose of local traffic. [For further information regarding Búndi State, see the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. i. pp. 203-241 (Calcutta, 1879).]

Búndi.—Chief town of the State of Búndi, in Rájputána, and the residence of the chief. Situated in a gorge in the centre of the range of hills passing through the State. Lat. 25° 27' N., long. 75° 40' 37" E. Population (1881) 20,744, namely, Hindus, 16,351; Muhammadans, 4377; 'others,' 16. Next to Udaipur (Oodeypore), the town of Búndi is the most picturesque in Rájputána. Built upon the steep side of the hill, the palace rising up above the city itself in pinnacled terraces, is a striking feature of the place. The streets and houses rise and fall with the unevenness of the ground, and some of the suburbs have crept upwards on both the northern slopes. Below the palace is a large range of stable yards and other offices, above which rise the reception courts and halls of audience; over these again are ranged the more private chambers and receiving rooms of the Court. Higher still rise the crenelated battlements and columned *chhatris* surmounting still more private apartments, and finally a stone causeway leads upwards to the summit of the ridge, where the main fort and the chief's most secluded recesses are situated.

The city is entirely enclosed within walled fortifications, through which ingress and egress are obtained by means of four gateways, viz. the *Mahal* gate on the west, the *Cháogan* gate on the south, the *Mína* gate on the east, and the *Ját Ságar* gate on the north-east. One tolerably regular street, nearly 50 feet in width, runs throughout the whole length of the city from the palace to the *Mína* gate. The other streets are all narrow and very irregular. One large temple on the fort hill, another in the southern suburb, 12 Jain temples, and about 415 smaller temples and shrines sacred to Vishnu and Mahádeo, are scattered about the town. There are four approaches to the fort, a private one from the palace, one from the Gháti gate near the Sukh Mahal, one from Birkhandi, and one from Phúl-Bágh. A spur of the fort hill is surmounted by a large and very handsome *chhatrí* called the *Súraj*, or Sun Dome, whose cupola rests on 16 pillars, and is about 20 feet in diameter; beyond this, to the northward, lies the Phúl-Bágh, and to the south again of this, about two miles from the city, the Naya-Bágh, both private places of retirement for the Búndi chiefs. Immediately to the west of the city rises an abrupt cliff, very nearly as high as that on which the fort stands, surmounted by a small mosque. To the south of the city there are a few scattered remains of former pleasure gardens, with here and there a monumental cenotaph. One large and very handsome one is dedicated to one of the royal foster-brothers of Ajít Singh's time. Skirting the northern bank of the Ját Ságar also are several pleasure-gardens, terminating at the Ser-Bágh or Mahásatti, the place of cremation for all the Búndi chiefs. There is a charitable dispensary at Búndi, a mint where gold, silver, and copper pieces are coined, an English school, several indigenous schools, and a post-office.

Bunera.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Situated about 90 miles from Udaipur town, on the high road from Nímach to Nasrábád, distant 85 miles from the former and 59 from the latter. The Rájá of Bunera is one of the chief feudatories of Udaipur, and his palace is one of the most imposing-looking edifices in the State. The town contains some 2500 houses; is walled, with a fort on the hill, at an elevation of 1903 feet above sea-level.

Bunhár.—Hill river in Jhelum (Jehlam) District, Punjab. Receives the whole drainage from the eastern portion of the Dhanni country north of the Salt Range; finds its way through a break in the upper or Diljabba spur, passes on through the Gora Galli Pass between the Tilla and Garjak Hills, and finally empties itself into the Jhelum river, about a mile above Dárapur. After a heavy fall of rain, the Bunhár becomes a roaring torrent, impassable for many hours. Its bed below the Gora Galli stretches upwards of a mile in breadth.

Bún-maw (*Bhún-maw*, or *Bhoon-maw*).—Celebrated pagoda in Talaing Thaung-gún village, Tenasserim, British Burma. Built in

1341 A.D. by an exiled Pegu prince on a bluff called Kyit-sa-maw, about 3 miles north-east of Tavoy. It is octagonal in shape, 41 feet high, and 117 feet in circumference at the base, and still carries a Talaing-ti.

Burábalang ('*Old Twister*').—A river of Orissa; rises among the hills of Morbhanj State, in lat. $21^{\circ} 52' 45''$ N., and long. $86^{\circ} 30' 0''$ E., and after receiving two tributaries, the Gangáhar and the Sunái, passes through Balasor District and flows into the sea, in lat. $21^{\circ} 28' 15''$ N., and long. $87^{\circ} 6' 0''$ E. The river takes its name from its snake-like course. The tide runs up 23 miles. In the upper reaches, the banks of the river are sandy, steep, and cultivated. In the lower part, they are of firm mud, covered to high-water mark with black slime, and bordered by jungle or open grassy plains. The Burábalang is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as BALASOR town, about 16 miles up its winding course. A sandbar across the mouth renders the entrance difficult for shipping. (*See* BALASOR DISTRICT.)

Burá Dharlá (or *Nilkumár*).—Tributary of the DHARLA river, in Rangpur District, Bengal. The name would seem to imply that this was at one period a channel of the Dharlá.

Burá Mantreswar.—A name given to the mouth of the HUGLI river, Bengal.

Burá Tistá.—The name given to several old channels of the TISTA river, Bengal.

Burdu.—Town in Gwalior territory, Central India. Population (1881) 6841.

Burghúr (*Bargúr*).—A range of hills in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; average height, 2500 feet above the sea; highest point, 5000 feet. Lat. $11^{\circ} 49' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 36' E.$ In length about 30 miles, and crossed by the road from Erode to Collegal (*Kálligál*). Little is known of these hills, which are very wild and picturesque. Game of all kinds abound.

Burghúr (*Bargúr*).—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Situated in a depression in the hills to which it gives its name. Connected with the railway at Erode by a decent road of about 45 miles in length.

Búrha.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsil* in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area, 1695 square miles, of which 491 are cultivated, 257 cultivable, and 947 uncultivable; number of villages, 802; occupied houses, 54,500; population (1881) 266,415, namely, 131,257 males and 135,158 females; average density of population, 157 per square mile. Amount of land revenue, including cesses, levied from the landholders, £15,434; amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £28,906, or an average of 1s. 10d. per cultivated acre. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner and Assistant

Commissioner, *tahsildár*, *munsif*, and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 4 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánds*) 4, with 12 outposts; strength of regular police, 120 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 681. •

Búrha.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Balághát District, Central Provinces. Lat. $21^{\circ} 48' 30''$ N., long. $80^{\circ} 14' E$. Situated on a high ridge of micaceous shale, about 10 miles south of the main range of hills, and 1 mile from the Wáingangá river. Population (1881) 3573, chiefly agricultural; Hindus, 3377; Muhammadans, 616; Christians, 34; aboriginal tribes, 106. On the north and west sides the soil appears well suited for mango cultivation, and large mango groves shelter the town.

Burhána.—*Tahsíl* and town, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces.—See BUDHANA.

Burhánpur.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsíl* in Nimár District, Central Provinces, lying between $21^{\circ} 4' 15''$ and $21^{\circ} 37' 15''$ N. lat., and between $75^{\circ} 59' 15''$ and $76^{\circ} 50' E$. long. Area, 1138 square miles, of which 168 are under cultivation, 363 cultivable, and 607 uncultivable; number of towns or villages, 130; number of houses, 18,991, of which 16,583 are occupied, and 2408 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 77,123, namely, 40,003 males and 37,120 females; average density, 102 persons per square mile. Amount of Government land revenue, including cesses, levied from the land-holders, £7295; amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £12,268, or an average of 2s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contains 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 40.

Burhánpur.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces. Lat. $21^{\circ} 18' 33''$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 16' 26'' E$. On the north bank of the river Tápti, about 40 miles south by west from Khandwa, and 2 miles from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Station of Lálbágh. Population (1881) 30,017, namely, males 15,442, and females 14,575. Hindus numbered 20,991; Kabirpanthis, 62; Satnámis, 30; Muhammadans, 8735; Jains, 195; Jews, 3; aboriginal tribes, 1. Municipal income in 1880–81, £5360, of which £3619 was derived from taxation, at the rate of 2s. 4½d. per head of the population. It was founded about 1400 A.D. by Nasir Khán, the first independent prince of the Farukhí dynasty of Khándesh, and called by him after the famous Shaikh Burhán-ud-dín of Daulatábád. Though the rival Muhammadan princes of the Deccan repeatedly sacked the place, eleven princes of the Farukhí dynasty held Burhánpur down to the annexation of their kingdom by the Emperor Akbar in 1600. The earlier Farukhís have left no monument except a couple of rude minarets in the citadel, called the Bádsháh Kilá; but the twelfth of the line, Ali Khán, considerably improved the city, and built the handsome Jamá Masjid, still in excellent preserva-

tion. Under Akbar and his successor, Burhánpur was greatly embellished. In the *Ain-i-Akbari* it is described as a 'large city with many gardens, in some of which is found sandal-wood; inhabited by people of all nations, and abounding with handicraftsmen. In the summer the town is covered with dust, and during the rains the streets are full of mud and stone.' Burhánpur formed the seat of government of the Deccan princes of the Empire till 1635, when Aurangábád took its place. After this event, Burhánpur became the capital of the large *súbah* of Khándesh, usually governed by a prince of the royal blood.

The transfer had not occurred at the time when Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador in 1614 from James I. to the Great Mughal, paid his visit to Prince Parviz, son of Jahángir, the governor, which he thus describes: 'The *cutwall*, an officer of the king so called, met me well attended, with sixteen colours carried before him, and conducted me to the seraglio where I was appointed to lodge. He took his leave at the gate, which made a handsome front of stone; but, when in, I had four chambers allotted to me, like ovens and no bigger, round at the top, made of bricks in the side of a wall, so that I lay in my tent, the *cutwall* making his excuse that it was the best lodging in the town, as I found it was, all the place being only mud cottages, except the prince's house, the *chan's*, and some few others. I was conducted by the *cutwall* to visit the prince, in whose outward court I found about a hundred gentlemen on horseback waiting to salute him on his coming out. He sat high in a gallery that went round, with a canopy over him and a carpet before him. An officer told me as I approached that I must touch the ground with my head bare, which I refused, and went on to a place right under him railed in, with an ascent of three steps, where I made him reverence, and he bowed his body; so I went within, where were all the great men of the town, with their hands before them like slaves. The place was covered overhead with a rich canopy, and under foot all with carpets. It was like a great stage, and the prince sat at the upper end of it. Having no place assigned, I stood right before him; he refusing to admit me to come up the steps, or to allow me a chair. Having received my present, he offered to go into another room, where I should be allowed to sit; but by the way he made himself drunk out of a case of bottles I gave him, and so the visit ended.'

Forty-four years after Sir Thomas Roe's visit, Tavernier described Burhánpur (or, as he wrote it, Brampour), through which he then passed for the second time, as 'a great city, very much ruined, the houses being for the most part thatched with straw.' He adds: 'There is also a great castle in the midst of the city, where the governor lives. The government of this Province is a very considerable command, only

conferred upon the son or uncle of the king. There is a great trade in this city, and as well in Brampour as over all the Province. There is made a prodigious quantity of calicuts, very clear and white, which are transported into Persia, Turkey, and Muscovia, Poland, Arabia, to Grand Cairo, and other places.' The remains of mosques and other buildings show that, at the height of its prosperity under the Mughals, Burhánpur extended over an area of about 5 square miles. A skilfully-constructed system of aqueducts supplied it with abundance of pure water. Eight sets may still be traced, two of which were channels led off from running streams, partly under and partly above ground. The other six consisted of a number of wells, connected by a subterranean gallery, and so arranged as to intercept the water percolating from the neighbouring hills. The supply thus obtained passes by a masonry adit pipe to its destination in the city or suburbs. All these channels, where they run underground, are furnished at short intervals with tall hollow columns of masonry rising to the level of the water at the source of the works, the object of which seems uncertain.

Burhánpur played an important part in the wars of the Empire, particularly in the reign of Aurangzeb. In 1685, that prince had hardly left the city with a large army to subjugate the Deccan when the Maráthás took the opportunity to plunder the place. Thirty-four years later, after repeated battles in the neighbourhood, the demand of the Maráthás for the *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue, was formally conceded. In 1720, Asaf Jáh Nizám-ul-Múlk seized the government of the Deccan, and resided chiefly at Burhánpur, where he died in 1748. By this time the population of the city had greatly diminished; and the brick wall with bastions and nine gateways, erected in 1731, enclosed an area of little more than $1\frac{1}{4}$ square mile. In 1760, after the battle of Udgí, the Nizám ceded Burhánpur to the Peshwá, who, eighteen years later, transferred it to Sindhiá. In 1803, the city was taken by General Wellesley; but it was not until 1860 that, in consequence of a territorial arrangement with Sindhiá, Burhánpur came permanently under British government. In 1849, the town was the scene of a desperate and sanguinary affray between Muhammadans and Hindus on the occasion of a Hindu festival. The chief buildings in Burhánpur are a brick palace built by Akbar, called the *Lál Kila*, or Red Fort, and the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, built by Aurangzeb. The *Lál Kila*, though much dilapidated, still contains some fine apartments, and other relics of imperial magnificence. It was formerly shut off from the town by a rampart. The muslin, silk, and brocade manufactures of Burhánpur were once very famous, and still exist. But the city has long been declining. English fabrics have displaced the 'clear and white calicuts' mentioned by Tavernier; and now the local industry is confined to the manufacture of fine cotton and silk fabrics, interwoven

with the gold-plated silver-thread drawn in the city (the purity of which is tested by Government inspection), and of such coarser cotton goods as Manchester has failed to supplant. But the demand for the finer fabrics of gold and silk, and for the best qualities of cloth, has greatly fallen off ever since the luxurious Muhammadan princes gave place to the rude Maráthás. The removal from Burhánpur of the seat of native government greatly injured the trade of the place; and since the construction of the railway, Burhánpur has ceased to be an entrepôt for the traffic between Málwá, the Upper Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the Deccan. The city has a post-office, and a travellers' bungalow near the railway station at Lálbágh, a park 2 miles north of the town. An Assistant Commissioner and *tahsildár* reside at Burhánpur.

Búrhapára.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. In shape a rough equilateral triangle, with its apex to the north; bounded on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by Babhni-páir, and on the west by Sádullápur *parganá*. Originally a portion of the Kalhans *ráj*, for history of which see GONDA DISTRICT. Afterwards conquered by the Pathán, Ali Khán, who established Utráula, and whose descendants still hold a $\frac{2}{3}$ ths share of this *parganá*. The remaining $\frac{1}{3}$ ths share, which was also held by a Muhammadan of the same family, was confiscated for disloyalty during the Mutiny, and bestowed as a reward for good service upon Bhaya Haratan Singh, who is now the principal *tálukdár*. The centre of the *parganá* is a well-cultivated plain, thickly inhabited, but with no distinctive natural features beyond numerous clumps of fine *mahud* trees, which give a pleasant park-like appearance to the landscape. To the north-west and south, the cultivated plain is bounded by a belt of forest, abounding in game, but yielding every year to the axe and the plough. Total area, $77\frac{3}{4}$ square miles, or 49,688 acres, of which 30,330 acres are cultivated. Excluding forest, the revenue-yielding tract comprises an area of 30,303 acres, of which 18,877 acres are cultivated. Autumn crops—rice and *kodo*; spring crops—wheat, gram, *alsi*, peas, poppy. Government land revenue demand, under the 30 years' settlement, is gradually progressive from £1756 in 1873-74 to £2695 at the end of the term. Average incidence per acre of assessed land (excluding forest grants)—in 1873-74, 1s. 10½d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 1½d. per acre of total area; in 1903-04, 2s. 10½d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9d. per acre of total area. Population (1881), Hindus, 24,565, and Muhammadans, 6631; total, 31,196, viz. 15,954 males and 15,242 females. Number of villages, 128. The most numerous caste among the Hindus is the Bráhmaṇ, the Rájputs being few. The aboriginal Bhars, at one time the rulers of an extensive kingdom, who have entirely disappeared in other parts, are still found here. They follow a nomadic system of

forest cultivation, wandering from jungle to jungle. Their abandoned clearings are quickly taken possession of by more careful cultivators, such as Kúrmís and Ahírs. The villages are connected by rough cart tracks, and the rivers crossed at intervals by fords. Principal export—rice; imports—salt and cotton, both raw and manufactured.

Burhee.—Village in Hazáribágh District, Bengal.—*See* BARHI.

Burí Dihing.—River of Assam, which rises among the unexplored mountains to the extreme east of the Province, and flows generally with a westerly course into the Brahmaputra. For some distance it forms the southern frontier of Lakhimpur District, then it crosses that District, and finally forms the boundary between the Districts of Lakhimpur and Sibságar for a few miles above its confluence with the Great River. It is comparatively useless for purposes of navigation. In the rainy season its channel becomes so overgrown with grass, etc., as to be with difficulty penetrated by steamers; while during the rest of the year it dwindles to a very shallow stream, with dangerous rapids. The chief places on its banks are Jaipur and Khowang, both in Lakhimpur District. In the hills above JAIPUR there is much mineral wealth of coal, iron, and petroleum, which would attract European enterprise if only the Burí Dihing were less difficult of navigation.

Burí Gandak.—River of Bengal; rises in the Sumeswar range of hills close to the Harhá Pass, and flows from north-west to south-east through the Districts of Champáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhanga, pouring its waters into the Ganges in Monghyr District. At its source it is called the Harhá; in *tappás* Bahás and Madhwál, in Champáran, it becomes the Sikhrená; in *parganá*s Simráon and Mihsi, the Burí Gandak or Muzaffarpur river; and, as it approaches Muzaffarpur District, the Chhota Gandak. Except in the upper reach (called the Harhá) it is navigable throughout the rains; but in the dry season sandbanks render navigation by large boats impossible from Monghyr District upwards to Nagarbastí, in Darbhanga District. It is navigable all the year round for boats of 200 *maunds* (7 tons). In the rains, boats of 2000 *maunds* (75 tons) can go as far as Ruserá; boats of 1000 *maunds* (37½ tons) up to Muzaffarpur; and boats of 100 *maunds* (3½ tons) as far as Sigaulí, in the north of Champáran District. The Burí Gandak and the Bághmatí, which flows into it above Ruserá, convey the produce of Darbhanga to Calcutta. Principal marts — DARBHANGAH, MUZAFFARPUR, SOMASTIPUR, RUSERA, and KHARGARIA.

Buriganga ('Old Ganges').—River in Dacca District, Bengal; a branch of the Dhaleswari, about 26 miles in length, leaving that river a short distance below Sábhar village, and rejoining it at Fatullá on the Náráyananj road. The city of Dacca is situated on the northern bank of this river. The tract between the Buriganga and the Dhaleswari is

known as Paschimdí Island. There is no doubt that the Burigangá was at one time the principal channel of the Ganges, the land to the south being a new formation.

Burirhát.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. $25^{\circ} 29' N.$, long. $89^{\circ} 16' 30'' E.$ Chief exports, jute and tobacco.

Búriya.—Town in Jagádhri *tahsíl*, Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. Lat. $30^{\circ} 9' 30'' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 23' 45'' E.$; population (1881) 7411, namely 3586 Hindus, 3553 Muhammadans, 156 Sikhs, and 116 Jains; houses, 1578. Situated near the west bank of the Jumna Canal, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Built in the reign of the Emperor Humáyún, by Búra, a Ját *zamíndár*; taken by the Sikhs about 1760, and erected into the capital of a considerable chieftainship, which was one of the nine states exempted from the reforms of 1849 (*see* AMBALLA DISTRICT), and permitted to retain independent jurisdiction after the reduction of the other chiefs to the position of *jágdárs*. Part of the territory has since lapsed, but the remainder still forms the estate of Jiún Singh, the present representative of the family, who resides in a handsome fort within the town. Other Sikh gentlemen have residences in the place. Considerable manufacture of country cloth; no trade of more than local importance. Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £401, derived from octroi duties.

Burma, British, is the name given by the English to the long strip of the Malay Peninsula, stretching down the eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal, and lying between $9^{\circ} 55'$ and $21^{\circ} 55' N.$ lat., and between $92^{\circ} 10'$ and $99^{\circ} 30' E.$ long. British Burma was added to our Indian Empire by the wars of 1824 and 1852. The territory left to the dynasty of Alaungpaya is known to us as INDEPENDENT BURMA; and to the Shans and others as Ava, from the name of a recent capital. British Burma covers an area of 87,220 square miles, and is bounded on the north by Upper or Independent Burma and Eastern Bengal, on the east by Karenni and the Siamese kingdom, and on the south and west by the sea. For administrative purposes British Burma is divided into four Divisions.—Arakan, Irawadi, Pegu, and Tenasserim—containing 20 Districts, inclusive of the Salwín Tracts and Northern Arakan. The northern boundary line, separating the Irawadi and Pegu Divisions from the territory of the King of Burma, leaves the Arakan Yoma hills at a point called the 'ever visible peak,' and, running due east, passes the river Irawadi at its fiftieth mile, and the Pegu Yoma range 43 miles farther on; thence, 33 miles farther on, it crosses the Sittaung river, finally losing itself in a wilderness of mountains 13 or 14 miles farther east. The population in 1881 was 3,736,771. The following table shows the details of area and population, as ascertained by the Census of that year:—

**AREA AND POPULATION OF TERRITORY UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION
OF THE CHIEF COMMISSIONER OF BRITISH BURMA, ACCORDING TO
THE CENSUS OF 1881.**

British Districts		Area in square miles.	Towns and Villages.	Houses Occupied.	Population. (1881).	Populat'n per sq. mile
Arakan Division.	Akyab,	5,535	1,929	68,057	359,706	64'99
	Northern Arakan,	1,015	195	3,363	14,499	14'28
	Kyaukpyu, ¹	4,309	937	28,691	149,303	34'65
	Sandoway,	3,667	469	11,639	64,010	17'46
	Total,	14,526	3,530	111,750	587,518	40'45
Pegu Division.	Rangoon Town,	22	1	20,655	134,176	6098'91
	Hanthawadi, ²	1,867	1,394	72,115	202,925	108'70
	Pegu,	2,369			224,795	94'90
	Tharrawadi,	2,014	1,385	49,846	278,155	138'11
	Prome,	2,887	1,650	62,800	322,342	111'65
	Total,	9,159	4,430	205,416	1,162,393	126'91
Irawadi Division.	Thayetmyo,	2,397	872	34,080	169,560	70'74
	Henzada,	1,948	1,231	55,499	318,077	163'28
	Bassein,	7,047	1,699	69,812	389,419	55'26
	Thongwa,	5,413	978	49,396	284,063	52'48
	Total,	16,805	4,780	208,787	1,161,119	69'09
Tenasserim Division.	Maulmain Town,	14	1	9,340	53,107	3793'36
	Amherst,	15,189	1,021	50,483	301,086	19'82
	Tavoy,	7,150	291	15,464	84,988	11'89
	Mergui,	7,810	200	10,159	56,559	7'24
	Shwegyin,	5,567	559	31,868	171,144	30'74
	Toung-gu,	6,354	836	27,708	128,848	20'28
	Salwin Hill Tracts,	4,646	209	6,387	30,009	6'46
	Total,	46,730	3,117	151,409	825,741	17'67
Grand total,		87,220	15,857	677,362	3,736,771	42'84

¹ Formerly called Ramri.

² In April 1878, Henzada District, which was formerly called Myanong, was divided into two, named Henzada and Tharrawadi; Hanthawadi District has, since the date of the Census, been likewise divided into two, named Hanthawadi and Pegu.

Physical Aspects.—The shape of the Province, as it figures on the map, somewhat resembles a sea-gull travelling towards the east with wide-extended wings. The northern pinion would be Arakan, stretching from the extreme north and the Naaf estuary to Sandoway, and narrowly confined in all its length between the Yoma Mountains and the sea. The body would include the valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung, reaching inland for nearly 300 miles; while the southern wing would include the lower valley of the Salwin and Tenasserim, com-

prised between the mouths of the Sittaung and the Pákhán river, in the Isthmus of Kraw. The extreme length of this stretch of country is close upon 1000 miles.

The Arakan Division, from the Naaf estuary down to Bluff Point, is bounded on the north and east by the high chain of mountains known as the Arakan Yoma range, extending in a southerly direction from the south-eastern extremities of Sylhet and Cachar, and gradually diminishing till it ends at the rocky promontory of Cape Negrais. Though of considerable height to the north, this chain diminishes in altitude as it reaches Arakan, none of the passes across it, in the centre portion, being more than 4000 feet above the sea; the Ayeng pass into the valley of the Irawadi is considerably less. The coast between the Naaf estuary and Sandoway is a labyrinth of creeks and tidal channels, but studded with fertile islands, the largest of which are Cheduba and Ramri. Farther south, the coast between Sandoway and Cape Negrais is rugged and rocky, offering few or no harbours for ships. Owing to the nearness to the coast of the Arakan Yoma range, there are no large streams flowing into the sea. Of the marine inlets the principal are the Naaf estuary, about 30 miles in length, and 3 miles broad at its mouth, shallowing considerably towards its head; the Mayu river, an arm of the sea running inland more than 50 miles, and from 3 to 4 miles broad at its mouth and the Kuladan or Arakan river, rising in the Lushai hills, near the Blue mountain, in lat. 23° N., with Akyab, the chief Divisional town, situated on the right bank close to its mouth. The Kuladan is navigable for 40 miles from its mouth by vessels of 300 or 400 tons burthen. The other rivers in this portion of the province are the Talak, the Ayeng, the Sandoway, and the Gwa, the last named being a good haven for small steamers, or vessels of from 9 to 10 feet draught. The soil throughout is alluvial, mixed in places with sand; the islands are of volcanic formation, and though rocky are fertile.

The Pegu and Irawadi Divisions, the most productive of the whole Province, comprise the whole of the lower portions of the valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung, the watershed between being the Pegu Yoma range of hills, which terminate in low hills at Rangoon; the Paunglaung range running to the east of the Sittaung valley. In this portion of the Province, the main rivers are the Irawadi, the Hlaing or Rangoon, the Pegu, and the Sittaung. The Irawadi flows from its undiscovered sources about 800 miles before reaching British possessions. Through these, its waters roll on in a south-south-west direction for 240 miles, when the river empties itself by ten mouths into the sea. As it approaches the coast, the Irawadi divides into numerous branches, converting the lower portion of the valley into a network of tidal creeks. The first branch from the main stream is given off from a point about 9 miles above Henzada town, flowing westwards past the town of

Bassein, and entering the Bay of Bengal by two main mouths; this branch, usually known as the Bassein river, is navigable by vessels of heavy burthen for a distance of 80 miles, or up to Bassein, a port of some importance. The Irawadi is navigable for river steamers as far as Bhamo, 600 miles beyond the frontier. The velocity of its waters when the river is full is five miles an hour; the river commences to rise in March, and continues to rise until September (flooding the surrounding lowlands), when it begins to fall. The Hlaing rises close to Prome, and flows in a southerly direction till, passing Rangoon, it is joined by the Pegu and Pú-zwun-daung rivers, coming from the north-east and the east. The two latter streams rise close together in the Yoma range, about 58 miles above the town of Pegu. The Rangoon river also communicates by numerous channels with the principal delta branch of the Irawadi. The Sittaung river rises far north of British territory, and during the dry weather is with difficulty navigable by boats of any draught. Below Shwe-gyin, where it receives the waters of the Shwe-gyin river, it gradually widens; and after a backward curve, it issues through a funnel-shaped basin into the Gulf of Martaban, spreading so rapidly that it is difficult to distinguish where the river ends and the gulf begins. The valleys of the Irawadi and the Sittaung unite towards their mouths to form an extensive plain, stretching from Cape Negrais to the head of the Gulf of Martaban. The plains portion of these two valleys is highly cultivated, and is the richest part of the whole Province. Owing to the spurs thrown out by the Pegu Yoma range, the main valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung are divided into several smaller ones. A strip of country in the Sittaung valley on the west, about 25 or 30 miles broad, is covered with dense jungle, which stretches down as far south as Shwe-gyin. The coast line from Cape Negrais to the Gulf of Martaban is low and flat.

The Tenasserim Division, or southern portion of the Province, lying along the coast between the parallels of 10° and 18° N. lat., is bounded on the east, at a distance of from 30 to 40 miles from the coast, by a chain of hills, in some places reaching to a height of 5000 feet. The breadth of this chain near Martaban has never been ascertained, but near Tavoy it appears to be about 40 miles wide, whence it gradually narrows to 10 miles near Mergui. The coast-line is very irregular and low for some miles inland, beyond which the surface of the country is mountainous, thinly populated, and much intersected by streams. The soil of the northern portion of Tenasserim is alluvial. Stratified sandstone is the prevailing rock, interspersed with veins of quartz, in which crystals of great beauty are sometimes discovered.

The great river of the Tenasserim Division is the Salwín (Salween). Its source has never been explored, but 600 miles due north of its mouth, between Talifu and Momien, in the Province of Yunan, it

flows a rolling torrent, with a shingle bed 140 yards wide. Owing to numerous rapids and rocks, it is only navigable for a few miles from Maulmain, the point at which it enters the sea. Near Maulmain the Salwín is joined by the Gein Mayu and its tributaries. The other rivers of the Tenasserim Division are the Bilin, which rises in the Paunglaung hills, and, flowing south, enters the Gulf of Martaban between the Salwín and the Sittaung; the Zami; the Tavoy, whose mouth affords excellent anchorage for ships; and the Tenasserim, which rises in about 15° N. lat., and flows past the town which gives its name both to the stream and the Division. It enters the sea by two mouths, the northern channel being navigable by boats for about 100 miles.

Three chief ranges of hills traverse the Province of British Burmah, from north to south. Their configuration has been well described by Colonel Yule. To the west is the Arakan Yoma, a cramped and stunted prolongation of the great multiple congeries of mountains which start from the Assam chain. Seven hundred miles from its origin in the Nágá wilds, it sinks into the sea by Cape Negrais; the last bluff is crowned by the Hmawden pagoda, gleaming far to seaward, a Burmese Sunium. The Pegu Yoma, the range which separates the Sittaung from the Irawadi valley, starts from Ycme-thin in Upper Burma, and stretches south with a general direction in the meridian to a parallel a little higher than the head of the delta. Here it branches out into several low terminal spurs, the extremity of one being crowned by the Burman cathedral of Buddhism, the great shrine of Shwe Dagon. The Paunglaung, which divides the Sittaung and the Salwín valleys, is a meridional chain, some of the peaks of which, in the neighbourhood of Toung-gu, reach an altitude of more than 6000 feet. The Tenasserim Hills may be regarded as a prolongation of this range. They form the boundary between the territory of Tenasserim and Siam. The Yoma ranges are composed mainly of brown or grey-slate clay, alternating with beds of sandstone, assuming at times a basaltic character.

The lakes in the Province would be more properly entitled lagunes, and there are few of any importance. The best known is the Kandaw-gyí, or 'Royal Lake,' near Rangoon. The Tú Lake, in Henzada District, is 9 miles in circumference and $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles across; there are also two lakes in Bassein District, each about 5 miles in circumference. A canal connects the Pegu and Sittaung rivers; and another, the Rangoon and Irawadi rivers.

The country throughout the Delta is flat and uninteresting. Towards Promé the valley of the Irawadi contracts, and the monotony of the plain is diversified by a wooded range of hills, which cling to the western bank nearly all the way to the frontier. The Salwín valley contains occasional harmonies of forest, crag, and mountain stream; but they bear the same relation to the wild sublimity of the Himálayas as the

Trossachs to the Alps. On the other hand, the scenery in Tavoy and Mergui, and among the myriad islets which fringe the Tenasserim coast, is almost English in its verdure and repose. A large part of the Province is covered with forests, a small part of them being reserved by the State. The teak plantations lie in the valleys of the Irawadi and the Sittaung.—*See* AMHERST DISTRICT.

History.—The Golden Chersonese, as Ptolemy designated it, has played a quite insignificant rôle in the world's history, as compared with the other two great peninsulas of Asia—India and Arabia.* Each of the three has been the home and stronghold of a colossal creed. But while Arabia and India are indissolubly connected with the fabric of modern civilisation, the Burman peninsula has remained isolated and unknown, the battle-ground and grave of strange races and kingdoms, who appear and disappear with scarcely an echo from their existence penetrating to the outer world. Our present possessions comprise the sites of at least four ancient kingdoms—Arakan, Thah-tun, Martaban, and Pegu. The meagre annals which remain ascribe to each an Indian origin, and it is from India, no doubt, that their literature and religion have been derived. Indeed, several of the names which we find in the Tables of Ptolemy assigned to the Golden Chersonese (properly in his geography the delta of the Irawadi) are purely Indian, and show that Indian influence already prevailed on the coast. The ancient history of British Burma is to a large extent involved in that of Independent Burma; and to that article the reader is also referred. The researches of Dr. Forchhammer, of Rangoon, are opening up stores of materials for a complete treatment of the archæology and epigraphy of the Province. I regret that the limited scope of this article precludes me from utilizing his valuable labours.

The Arakanese chronicle (*see* AKYAB DISTRICT) relates how the Burman peninsula was first colonized by a prince from Benares, who established his capital at Sandoway. The next irruption was by the Burmese race from the east; but apparently they made little head against the indigenous tribes, till another legendary prince (this time of Gautama's line) arrived as their champion and king. His dynasty was probably superseded by a fresh invasion from Burma, occurring, according to their chronology, in B.C. 825; and the Buddhist religion was introduced during the reign of the twenty-ninth monarch of the new line, A.D. 146. About the year 970 A.D., the country was attacked by the Shans, who retired after eighteen years' possession. One of the old dynasty then recovered the kingdom, with the help of the Burmese, at Pagan; and similar aid was given to one of his successors against a rebel nearly 100 years later. In the reign of Gaw-laya, who ascended the throne about 1133, the Kings of Bengal, Pegu, Pagan, and Siam are said to have acknowledged Arakanese supremacy. During the

next century and a half the country suffered largely from inroads made by the Shans and the Talaings, till King Mintí, in 1294, repulsed the invaders, and in his turn carried his arms against Pagan and Pegu. This resulted in a long period of comparative immunity, till an act of tyranny, committed by the reigning prince, Min Saw Mún, in 1404, raised a rebellion against him, and cost the kingdom its independence. The dethroned monarch took refuge in Bengal, and was restored some years later by Musalmán aid. Thenceforth the coins of the Arakan kings bore on the reverse their names and titles in corrupt imitations of Persian and Nágarí characters, and the custom was continued long after their connection had been severed with Bengal.

The subsequent history of Burma forms a confused record of intestine strife and foreign war. Despite its mountain barrier, it lay at the mercy of both Burmese and Talaings, and its rulers were generally subject to the one or the other power. The close of the 16th century witnessed the last great struggle between Ava and Pegu; and the King of Arakan availed himself of the weakness of his neighbours in Bengal, to extend his dominion over Chittagong, and northwards as far as the Meghná river. His son aided the Viceroy of Toung-gu in completing the ruin of the Peguan Empire, and endeavoured to retain the Province through the agency of the Portuguese adventurer, Philip de Brito y Nicote, whom he left in charge of Syriam. Nicote, once in power, disclaimed all allegiance, and maintained possession for thirteen years, till subdued and slain by the King of Ava in 1613. During the 17th century Arakan is described by Bernier as the resort of all loose European adventurers. Sebastian Gonzales, a worthy successor to Nicote, established himself on Sandiva (Sandwíp) island at the mouth of the Meghná, and was for years a terror to the country, till crushed with the help of the Dutch. The middle of the 18th century saw the rise of Alaungpaya ('Alompra'); and Arakan, exhausted by intestine dissension, fell an easy prey, in 1784, to Bodaw Paya, the son of that monarch, and was permanently annexed to the Avau dominion. It was this conquest which first brought the Burmese into contact with our Bengal frontier; and it was mainly acts of aggression from Arakan which led to the war of 1824, and the treaty of Yandabú two years later, which added Arakan and Tenasserim to our Indian Empire. For thirty-eight years they were administered under the Bengal Government, whose unwieldy bulk stretched over Assam and across the Arakan and Pegu Yomas, up to the Sittaung and Salwín watershed, with the Irawadi delta, as yet unacquired, intervening between the two ranges. In 1853, Pegu and Martaban also passed under British rule. In 1862, the four Provinces were welded into one, with Sir Arthur Phayre as the first Chief Commissioner.

Tha-htun, Pegu, and Martaban were the chief towns in the territory of Ramanna (Ramaniya), called by the Burmese the three places of the Talaings. The Múns or Talaings are a distinct family from the Burmese, and their language is cognate with those of Kambodia and Assam. Tha-htun was probably founded by Indian emigrants from the Coromandel coast several hundred years before the Christian era. The ruins of the city still exist, on a small stream about 10 miles from the sea-shore and 44 miles north-north-west from Martaban. The silting up of the channel has destroyed its position as a port, but it was known in India as a considerable emporium. We possess but scanty records of its history. In the 3rd century before Christ, two missionaries were despatched to Tha-htun (known then as Suvanna-bhúmf or Golden Land, the *Sobana Emporium* of Ptolemy) from the third great Buddhist assembly. Tradition falsely relates that Gautama visited the country thirty-seven years before attaining Nirvána, and was badly treated by the rude inhabitants of the coast. Another event of importance was the introduction of the Buddhist scriptures by Buddhaghosa, from Ceylon, A.D. 403. The kingdom existed till the close of the 11th century, and the names of 59 monarchs are recorded, whose reigns extended over 1683 years. It was then utterly destroyed by Anawrata, the famous Emperor of Pagan; and the ruthless devastation to which the whole Talaing territory was subjected probably accounts for the paucity of surviving chronicles.

The city of Pegu, according to native tradition, was founded by emigrants from Tha-htun in A.D. 573. Martaban was built three years later. The conflict between Bráhmaṇ and Buddhist then going on in Southern India no doubt affected the coast of Ramanna, and the new kingdom is mentioned as having successfully repelled an invasion from the adjacent continent. Gradually it came to embrace the whole country between Bassein and Martaban. It is related of the seventeenth ruler, Tissa, that he was converted from heretical doctrines through the courage of a young girl. With him terminated the native dynasty. After Anawrata's conquest, about 1050, Pegu remained subject to Burma for nearly 200 years. Its fortunes began to revive after the capture of Pagan by the forces of Kublai Khán. Magadu, an adventurer who is described as a native of Takaw-wún, near Martaban, raised the standard of revolt, and speedily found himself in possession of Martaban and Pegu. He defeated the Pagan forces sent to subdue him, and recovered all the Talaing country as far as Henzada and Bassein. He was in some degree feudatory to the King of Siam, in whose service he had been, and who had granted him royal insignia. He died in 1296, after a reign of twenty-two years.

In 1321, Tavoy and Tenasserim were added to the kingdom, which led to never-ending strife with Siam. During the reign of Binya-ú, who succeeded in 1348, the country was in great peril from the

Chieng-mai Shans and from internal revolt. The king shifted his capital from Martaban to Pegu; and though he conciliated the Shans, he was unable to crush the rebellion. Finally, in 1385, he was deposed by his son, Binya-nwe, the most famous of this line, who ruled under the name of Razadirit. He reigned for thirty-five years, in perpetual strife with Ava. His chief task was to repel invasion, though in 1404 he led a successful expedition into the very heart of the enemy's country. His kingdom embraced the Tenasserim Provinces and the Irawadi and Sittaung delta nearly as far north as Prome. For more than a century after his death Pegu remained in plenty and quiet, under a succession of able rulers.

The last monarch, Taka-rwut, came to the throne in 1526. His father had quarrelled with the King of Toung-gu, who, now that Ava had fallen to a race of Shan chieftains, was considered the representative of the ancient Burmese monarchy. Tabin Shwe-ti succeeded to this inheritance in 1530, and for four successive years attacked Pegu without avail. At length, in the year 1535, he obtained possession of the capital, and his brother-in-law, Burin-naung, having captured Martaban after a siege of over seven months, the new dynasty was established without further resistance among the Talaings. It is about this period that we begin to have notices of Pegu by Portuguese voyagers. Foreign mercenaries were employed by the new monarch in his subsequent wars both against Ava and Siam; and native historians ascribe his degraded habits and consequent loss of power to his intimacy with western strangers. He reigned for ten years in Pegu, and was succeeded by Burin-naung in 1550, known in Portuguese annals under the name Branginoco. This monarch, after crushing a formidable rebellion among his new subjects, extended his conquests over Prome, Ava, and the Shan States, as far as the Assam frontier. In 1563, he attacked Siam, and subjected it to his sway. On its rebellion six years later, he crushed the insurrection with another huge expedition. He died in 1581, while preparing for an invasion of Arakan. The wealth and magnificence of the Pegu Empire at this time have been described by contemporary travellers. Its swift and utter destruction is without a parallel in Eastern history. The emperor's son, Nanda-burin, succeeded to the throne; and four unsuccessful attempts to reduce Siam crippled the whole resources of the country. Plague, famine, and dissension ensued; the emperor alienated all his feudatories by his wanton cruelty and oppression, and finally his uncle, the King of Toung-gu, united with the King of Arakan and captured the tyrant in his capital, in 1599.

A subsequent invasion from Siam completed the ruin of the country; a country which none of the invaders showed any anxiety to retain in its depopulated and devastated condition. Finally, the

splendid dominion of Tabin Shwe-tí was actually governed for thirteen years by Nicote, the low-born Portuguese adventurer. In 1613, the King of Ava found himself strong enough to subdue the foreigners, and to annex the whole land to his own dominions. Thus, after an interval of more than 400 years, the seat of power was once more fixed in the upper country, and the ancient territory of Ramanna was again administered by Burmese governors. In 1735, the Talaings rose against their conquerors, and not only expelled them from Pegu, but for twenty years maintained their supremacy throughout the country. They were crushed by the irresistible arm of Alaungpaya, who left his new city of Rangoon to testify by its name to the completion of strife. But the Talaings could never be reconciled to Burmese supremacy, and a fresh revolt broke out in 1783, which was repressed with great barbarity by Bodaw Payá. The advent of British troops in the war of 1824 gave them a definite hope of delivery, and they were bitterly disappointed at our abandoning the country. At length the famous proclamation of Lord Dalhousie, on the 20th December 1852, relieved them for ever from their ancient oppressors; and ten years later the Province was organized and a Chief Commissioner appointed. The names of this officer and his successors are as follows:—Sir Arthur P. Phayre (appointed in 1862), Lieut.-General A. Fytche (1867), the Hon. Ashley Eden (1871), A. Rivers Thompson (1875), C. U. Aitchison (1878), C. Bernard (1880), C. H. T. Crosssthaite (officiating 1882), and C. Bernard (1884).

Population.—British Burma may be considered as perhaps the most progressive of our Indian dependencies, and it is interesting to note the growth and progress of the population since the British occupation of the country. Between 1826 and 1855, Arakan increased in population from 100,000 to 366,310, or an average of 50 per cent. in each decade. In Pegu in 1858, or six years after its annexation, which then included the present Irawadi Division, the population numbered only 890,974 persons; this number at the time of the Census of 1881 had increased to 2,323,512; the increase in the 23 years amounting to 161 per cent. In Tenasserim, three years after its annexation, the population was estimated at about 70,000; by 1855 it had risen to 213,692, or 200 per cent. in 26 years. Between 1855 and 1881, the population of the whole Province had increased from a million and a quarter to nearly four millions. From 1862 to 1872 the rate of growth was 3·13 per cent. per annum, and from 1862 to 1881, 3·14; calculating from these rates, British Burma may reasonably be expected to contain in 1891 upwards of 5 million (5,090,600) inhabitants.

The last Census of British Burma was taken on the 17th February 1881, when the population was returned at 3,736,771 souls. The density of the population is only 42·8 to the square mile. The

details of the population in the four Divisions of the Province have already been given in the table at the commencement of this article. The males outnumber the females in British Burma by 245,239, the figures obtained by the Census of 1881 being as follows:—Males, 1,991,005; females, 1,745,766, or 87·7 females to every 100 males. Among the Hindus there are only 19 females to 100 males; the Muhammadans intermarry with the natives of the country, who often nominally adopt the religion of their husbands; with them the proportion of women is about half, or 52·5 to every 100 men. The Christians, who include many native Karens, have 81·4 females to every 100 males; the Buddhists, 92·8; and the Nat-worshippers, 95·5. These proportions are for the whole Province. Classified according to age, there were in 1881, under 14 years old—males, 776,890; females, 734,521: above 14 years—males, 1,214,115; females, 1,011,245,—total population in 1881, 3,736,771.

The number of villages, towns, etc. in the Province in 1881 was 15,857; the number of inhabited houses was 677,362. The ordinary Burman house is built mainly of bamboo. The posts are of wood from the neighbouring forests, the walls and floor being of bamboos split and plaited or laid together. The roof is generally of thatch, made either of grass or of the leaves of a palm locally known as *dhani*. The floors are always raised above the ground from six to eight feet, and the sleeping apartment is above. Below, in the front, there is often a platform where visitors are received, and above which the cradle may be seen swinging; while under the floor are placed the agricultural implements, cattle, carts, and looms. Among the Burmese and Talaings, the front of the house is generally parallel with the roof ridge. The Chins, however, enter their dwellings at what is generally the end of the house, having, it is said, received the privilege of building their houses in this form, as a mark of royal gratitude, from a former king of Burma in return for favours shown him by the Chin ladies.

The Karens of the hills also enter their houses by the gable end. Their bamboo structures, *tehs* as they are called, have a long common passage running from one end to the other, on either side of which are ranged the rooms, in which perhaps as many as twenty different families live. The Karen houses are shifted annually. Under the house live the pigs and fowls, and during the year of residence much filth accumulates. Except among the Talaings, a house may face in any direction. Their houses are all turned to the north, presenting a curious and somewhat unsocial appearance. In the better houses the walls and floors are substantially made of plank, the roof being either thatched or constructed of tiles or wooden shingles. One house in four throughout the Province, and monasteries generally, are built of wood. Houses of the better class are most numerous in the Prome, Henzada, and

Toung-gu Districts, though in the other Districts their numbers are also fairly large.

According to the Census there are 4279 monasteries in the Province, or one to every 168 houses, or to every 3·7 villages. The average number of persons per occupied house is 5·5. There are 45·4 houses in each village or town, and each village or town has an average of 236 inhabitants. The number of boats, steamers, and sailing vessels returned by the Census was, for the whole Province, 15,040, and their population numbered, 75,315, including 11,202 females. There are 50,831 males and 2746 females, or altogether 53,577 persons, whose occupations fall within the professional class; the domestic class contains 20,203 males and 5674 females; total, 25,877. The commercial class contains 156,377 persons, of whom 39,095 are females. The agricultural class includes 1,186,151 persons, of whom 502,405 are females. There are 169,052 males and 175,230 females, total 344,282 persons, engaged in industrial pursuits. The indefinite and non-productive class comprises 949,891 males and 1,020,616 females, or altogether 1,970,507 persons, most of whom are children. The population is thus distributed over the above six classes:—Professional, 1·4 per cent. of the whole; domestic, ·7 per cent.; commercial, 4·2 per cent.; agricultural, 31·8 per cent.; industrial, 9·2 per cent.; indefinite and non-productive, 52·7 per cent. The number of persons supported by agricultural occupations is 68·56 per cent.

The following are the 20 principal towns:—Rangoon, population (1881) 134,176; Maulmain, 53,107; Prome, 28,813; Bassein, 28,147; Akyab, 33,989; Henzada, 16,724; Tavoy, 13,372; Toung-gu, 17,199; Shwedaung, 12,373; Mergui, 8633; Thayet-myo, 16,097; Kyangin, 7565; Allanmyo, 5825; Shwe-gyin, 7519; Yandún, 12,673; Myanaung, 5416; Pantanaw, 6174; Paungde, 6727; Pegu, 5891; Laymyathna, 5355. At the time of British annexation there were not three towns in the Province with a population of 10,000, and scarcely five towns with more than 5000. Since then Maulmain has grown from a fishing village into a town with over 50,000 inhabitants; Akyab, then a petty hamlet, now contains nearly 34,000 souls; and the returns for 1881 show 11 towns with a population of more than 10,000, and 9 with a population of more than 5000. The definition of a 'town' is a purely arbitrary one, the term being applied to all places having 5000 inhabitants and upwards. Six out of the 20 Districts include no town. Prome and Henzada Districts have 3 towns each. Of the villages, 8 have over 3000 inhabitants, 19 over 2000, 142 over 1000, 819 over 500, and 4886 over 200 inhabitants each.

Religion and Ethnography.—Burma may claim at present to be the head-quarters of Southern Buddhism. The religion exists throughout the country in its purest and most amiable form. It is singularly free from sect, the only two parties of any importance differing chiefly on some minor points of ceremonial. There are no trammels whatever of

class or caste or creed. The monastic order is open to the highest and lowest alike ; its essential demands being a life of purity, temperance, and truth. There are 6498 *Pungyis* or Buddhist priests in the Province, giving one priest to 500 of the Buddhist inhabitants. The followers of Gautama number more than four-fifths, or 87 per cent. of the whole population ; Muhammadans, 4·5 ; Nat-worshippers, 4·0 ; while Hindus and Christians constitute each about 2·0 per cent. of the total. Formerly the caste inequalities of Northern India prevailed to some extent among the Burmese. They have long since disappeared, and now the only titles or differences existing are those that belong to the founder or supporter of some religious building, or to the holders of some Government appointment. Elsewhere there is perfect equality, mere wealth not having sufficed hitherto to raise any barrier of distinction. The religions of Hindus, Muhammadans, Buddhists, Nat-worshippers, Christians, Brahmos, Jains, Jews, and Parsis, all have their representatives in British Burma, the numbers belonging to each being as follows :—Buddhists, 3,251,584 ; Nat-worshippers, 143,581 ; Hindus, 88,177 ; Muhammadans, 168,881 ; Christians, 84,219 ; Brahmos, 37 ; Jains, 5 ; Jews, 204 ; and Parsis, 83.

The term Nat-worshippers is thus explained in the Census Report :—“Nats” are spirits supposed to inhabit natural objects, terrestrial and celestial, and to interfere freely in the affairs of man. Some are evil, and their ill-will has to be propitiated by offerings of plantains, cocoa-nuts, fowls, or other such gifts. Some are kind, and their active favour or protection must be gained. The Burmese frequently make offerings to “Nats,” and regard the spirit-world with an awe not called for by the creed of Buddha. The belief in “Nats” has remained underlying their thoughts and religion ever since they were converted to Buddhism, a relic of the ancient cult, which is still preserved intact among the wilder Karens, Chins, and other hill races. At present, numbers of Karens and Chins, who have come in contact with the Burmese, though knowing little and practising less the religion of Gautama, call themselves Buddhists, because to do so is a sign of civilization and respectability.’ The decrease in the number returned of Nat-worshippers within the decade is due to this tendency to call themselves Buddhists, and not to a real falling off in the races forming this religious class.

The Christian population, which derives its new converts chiefly from among the Karens, was returned as follows :—Europeans, 7866 ; Eurasians, 4998 ; natives, 71,355 : total, 84,219. Of the Christians, 9980 belong to the Church of England, 16,281 to the Roman Catholic Church, 655 are Presbyterians, 55,874 Baptists, 166 Wesleyans, 346 Lutherans, 131 Armenians, 95 Greeks, and 72 Methodists, the remainder being unspecified. Looking at the distribution of the various sects, the

Church of England has most followers in Rangoon (3339), where the English and Eurasian society is large. The Roman Catholics are strongest in Toung-gu (5005). Baptist Christians are most numerous in Bassein District (18,704), and also abound in Thongwa (5594), Hanthawadi (6268), and Toung-gu (11,510). The work done by the various Missions during the decade has been on a large scale.

The Census Report gives the following account of the marriage customs of the people:—‘Among the Burmese, who are all Buddhists, girls are considered the property of the parents, but constraint on their choice of a husband is rarely employed. Child-marriages are practically unknown. Young men make love pretty much where their fancy leads them, first obtaining the consent of the parents, which is generally accorded, unless the young man is of doubtful character. The period of probation during which courtship was carried on, and the suitor carefully watched, was formerly long. It is now much briefer, and early marriage is easier for bachelors than of old. The Burmese mother is a great matchmaker, but she effects her end by peacefully influencing the feelings of the young couple whose union she desires to promote, and not by compulsion. Constraint is sometimes tried, but generally in vain. The young lady in that case either elopes with her favoured swain, or, as occasionally happens, hangs herself. The rule, however, is that the consent of the parent is requisite at a first marriage, and the practice is that the girl’s consent is also essential. The main element in the marriage ceremony is the publication of the union.

‘By Buddhist law, polygamy is permitted, but is rare. Occasionally, officials or wealthy traders have more than one wife, but polygamy is not looked upon as altogether respectable. Sometimes the elder wife strongly objects to being practically set aside, sometimes she acquiesces quietly in the arrangement, living in another house. Divorce is easily obtained. If the pair are agreed, elders are summoned, and the divorce takes place at once. If either the husband or the wife refuses to be divorced, the question is not whether the divorce can be effected, but how the common and peculiar property is to be divided. If no cause for requiring a separation is shown, the unwilling party takes all the common property. In some cases the applicant for divorce gets the whole. Disputed claims for divorce are often brought before the Civil Court, but as all grades of judges can grant decrees of separation, and indeed cannot refuse them, the only doubtful point being the disposal of the property, the difficulty of divorce is not materially enhanced. While, however, divorce is easily and rapidly obtained, the proportion of divorced persons to married couples is small. Married life in Burma, where the women carry on a great part of the trading and shopping, and amuse themselves after their own fancy, is very happy. Children are numerous, and separation of husband and wife by any cause but death

may be said to be comparatively rare. Among the Karens, Chins, and other hill tribes, marriage customs differ from those of the Burmese, where the original habits have been preserved ; but where these people have come in contact with the ruling race, their customs have been much modified, and little difference is observable. The children of Karens, except in the Karennee Clan, are generally betrothed by their parents, and subsequent non-fulfilment of the contract is expiated by a heavy fine.

‘Polygamy is not allowed by the Karen law, but among those who have embraced Buddhism, and mingled with the Burmese, it is occasionally practised. Adultery is the only ground on which divorce is permitted among the Karens. It is regarded as a great offence, but is not altogether rare. Chastity before marriage is not much regarded among any of the hill races. Among the Chins, marriage is a simple contract with the consent of the girl’s brother or parents. Large presents are at the same time made by the suitor, and girls are often affianced early in life. Polygamy is common ; but the consent of the first wife’s brother is required before the second wife can be taken. For certain misbehaviour on the part of the husband, the wife’s brother, who, instead of the parents, acts as guardian, may take her away. On the death of the husband, his brother takes the widow as his wife. Divorce is possible, but, if there is no proved offence, the husband is fined, and loses all claim to dowry. These customs, where they differ from those of the Burmese, are rapidly disappearing, and are preserved in their integrity only in the recesses of the hills.’

In regard to education, 26·2 per cent. of the whole population of the Province are either under instruction, or are able to read and write. The education of the females is far behind that of the males. Of the latter, 46·0 per cent. are educated or under instruction ; but of the former, only 3·6 per cent. can be so described. Scattered all over the country, but more numerous in some parts than in others, are monasteries, in which the Pungyis or Buddhist monks live together with probationers and novices, separated from the ordinary business of life. The Census Report returns 4279 such monasteries, or 1 to every 3·7 villages, and to every 168 houses. Often there are two such buildings in one village ; and except in wild tracts of country, the *Kyaung*, as the monastery is called in Burmese, is seldom distant from any hamlet. One of the chief occupations of the monks is the teaching of the boys of the neighbouring villages, and every Buddhist child passes some period of his life in a *Kyaung*, learning to read and write, and imbibing, to a certain extent, the precepts of Buddhist law. Poverty of a boy’s parents, or other causes, may occasionally prevent him from assuming the sacred yellow robe, with the somewhat costly ceremonies ; but, although not a regular novice, he may become a *Kyaungtha* or monastery boy for

a time, and so get a smattering of learning. In the larger villages, in addition to the monasteries, schools are often found kept by respectable elders, who desire to gain merit by engaging themselves in the education of youth, both boys and girls; the latter are excluded from the monasteries. As compared with other Provinces of India, British Burma has a highly-educated population, excepting in the Northern Arakan and Salwin Hill tracts, where the hill tribes form the inhabitants, among whom book-learning is almost unknown.

Ethnically, the population of British Burma varies to a considerable extent. The numbers returned by the Census of 1881 of the chief races inhabiting the country were—Burmese, 2,612,274; Talaings, 154,553; Karens, 518,294; Chins or Khyins, 55,015; Taungthas, 35,554; Kwaymies and Mros, 24,794; Shans, 59,723; Chinese, 12,962; natives of India, 241,449. It is at present generally admitted that the only race living in the Province, of whose advent in it nothing is known either by tradition or history, is the Talaing, as this people is called by the Burmese, or the Mon as they term themselves, and they are undoubtedly the oldest residents,—the aborigines of the country. Several centuries before the Christian era, men of the Dravidian family came from India, no doubt for purposes of trade to Suvarna Bhūmi or Ramaniya, as the tracts about the mouths of the Irawadi, Sittaung, and Salwin were then called. They found a wild race inhabiting the country, with whom they intermarried, and among whom they dwelt. This race were, no doubt, the Mon; but they received the title of Talaings from the name of the ancient country of Telingána, whence the colonists had sailed, and this name was extended to all Mons who in later times became known through the medium of the Dravidian colonists.

The city of Tha-hton, now 8 miles from the sea, was, at the time of its foundation by the colonists, and for some centuries afterwards, on the coast. In the third century before Christ, Buddhist missionaries reached Tha-hton, and two centuries later, the capital of the Talaing kingdom was transferred to Pegu, and the Burmese, who were moving southwards, came into contact with the Buddhist Talaings, and through them acquired their alphabet, their literature, and their religion. The oppression and cruelty endured by the Talaings, as the whole Mon race was now called, at the hands of their conquerors, the Burmese, explains the rapid disappearance of the Mon language, and the migration into Tenasserim during the early days of British rule. Their language was discouraged after the conquest of Pegu by Alompra in 1757, and furiously proscribed after the first Burmese war, in which the Talaings assisted the British arms, and it has ever since been rapidly giving way to Burmese.

In physical characteristics the Talaings differ little from the Burmese.

Their features are perhaps more regular, the nose is not so flat, and the face is longer. The complexion of the men is often of a darker and less yellow hue than that of the Burman. Sometimes they have been described as fairer than the Burmese. The Dravidians have left no trace of their colonization in the language of the natives, beyond the name Talaing; and the Hindu sculptures found at Tha-hton, Pagat, and elsewhere, are the only permanent record of the existence of an ancient Hindu colony in the neighbourhood, unless we are to ascribe the differences of feature characteristic of the Talaing to an admixture of Dravidian blood. There are in British Burma 154,553 pure Talaings, and 177,939 persons of mingled Burmese and Talaing parentage, or Talaings who speak only Burmese. Of the pure Talaings more than half are in Amherst District. Under the head of the Mramma family, and included in a group which may be called Burmese, come the Arakanese, Burman, Tavoy, Chaungtha, Yaw, and Yabein languages and races.

The Arakanese, also, differ but little in feature from the Burmese; and though their spoken language is so dissimilar from that of the latter as to be almost unintelligible, when written it is the same in almost all respects. The Chaungthas, or 'children of the stream,' are but a part of the Arakanese nation. The Yaws also are a people not differing much from the Burmese either in race or language. They live on a western tributary of the Irawadi, about the latitude of Pagan, and have been described as the pedlars of Upper Burma. The Yabein is almost indistinguishable from the Burmese in feature, and the only practical distinction between the two is that the former are rearers of silkworms, an occupation seldom or never adopted by the pure Burman. The Burmese in their traditions claim for themselves a western origin and a connection with the solar races of India. It is probable that the lower part of the valley of the Ganges was formerly occupied by people speaking languages of the class sometimes called Mramma before the advent of the Aryans; but, as regards the Burmese, it seems more natural to believe, as Sir Arthur Phayre writes, that they passed from the tablelands of Central Asia round the Eastern Himálayas. A kingdom was formed at Tagaung; and thence, it is said, a portion of the people went westwards into Arakan, while the remainder moving southwards, founded fresh kingdoms in Prome and Toung-gu, where the Burmese language is still supposed to be spoken in greater purity than elsewhere in Burma.

The hill tribes of Arakan who live near the Kuladan river and its tributaries, namely, the Sak, Chaw, Kwaymi, Kun, Mro, and Shandu, belong by origin to the same Mramma group as the Burmese, and their language belongs to what is sometimes called the Tibeto-Burman family. Of these hill tribes, the Shandús are the most warlike

and numerous ; they are probably the same race as the Kúkis, who, according to Colonel Dalton, stretch from the valley of the Kuládan to the border of Manipur and Cachár, a distance of 300 miles. The Kwaymís and Mros differ but little, in appearance and habits. It is probable that these tribes are more or less connected with the Nágás. The Chins or Khyins are widely extended in British Burmah, being found on both sides of the Arakan Yoma, and also in the Thayetmyo and Prome Districts, to the east of the Irawadi river. In Upper Burma there are large numbers. The most remarkable fact about them is that they tattoo the faces of their young girls so as not to leave even an eyelid free from the hideous operation. They are rapidly adopting Burmese habits and clothing on the Pegu side of the Arakan Yoma range, and their language is also giving way to Burmese.

The Karens are, next to the Burmese, the most numerous race in British Burma. The oldest seat of these people is thought to have been on the north-west of China, where they may have come in contact with Jewish colonies, and have acquired the traditions which have made them so willing to accept Christianity at the hands of missionaries. Thence the Karens, pressed by the growth of population in Central Asia, moved south towards Yunan ; and finding the country they had intended for themselves already occupied by another race, the Shans, they turned off to the south-west, proceeding along the hills on either side of the Sittaung and Salwín rivers, and settling into their present positions about the sixth century of the Christian era. There are three main groups of Karens, the Sgaw or Burman-Karen, the Pwo or Talaing-Karen, and the Bhgeh or Bweh. The Karens of the delta of the Irawadi, and of the interior of Tenasserim, including the District of Shwe-gyin, belong to the Pwo and Sgaw. In Toung-gu District, the Sgaws are found in the west, and the Bwehs on the east. The latter are also found in Salwín District. The Bwehs include the Red-Karens.

The Shans are not an indigenous race, but they immigrate in considerable numbers from the Shan States. Outside of British territory they are very numerous, stretching from the north-east of the kingdom of Ava to Bangkok. They are of the same origin as the Ahams and Khamtís of Assam. The appearance of the Shans in these more southern regions is of comparatively recent date. The completion, in 1884, of the Rangoon and Sittaung Valley State Railway will, it is anticipated, cause Shan immigration to assume important proportions. The Shans are careful cultivators, and hard working, and are also great traders and pedlars. The Taungthús, owing to a similarity of dress, somewhat resemble the Shans in personal appearance. They are rather short of stature and thickly built, and are a clannish and taciturn people. The name by which they are known signifies 'hillman,' but like the Shans, they settle in the plains of British Burma. It is believed that the

Taungthús are connected by race with the Karens, their habits and dress having been modified by long contact with the Shans. After arrival in British Burma, the younger members of the families soon adopt the Burmese dress and habits.

The only other races which call for any special notice, are the Daingnete and the Salones. The former dwell among the hills near the Chittagong frontier; in feature they are somewhat like the Gurkhás of Nepal. They dress in white, and wear their hair at the back of the head; their bodies are not tattooed, nor do they intermarry with other races. The Salones live in the various islands of the Mergui Archipelago; they are a tribe of sea-gypsies, living in the dry weather in their boats, and during the Monsoon seeking a temporary shelter in huts built on the lee-side of the islands. They are said to be divided into several clans, which have each a recognised right to fishing grounds within certain limits. They pay no taxes. In personal appearance, they are between the Malays and the Burmese.

In every 10,000 of the population of the Province, 8550 persons were born in British Burma, while 1450 were born out of the country. Of these 1450 aliens, 846 are natives of Upper Burma, 494 are from India, 275 from Bengal, 199 from Madras, 11 from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, and 9 from other parts of India; 30 are Chinamen, and 51 are Shans.

Social Condition of the People.—Under the Burman rule, before Pegu was annexed, there was a great gulf between the Burmans and the Karens. The latter feared the Burmese, and looked upon them as oppressors. The Karens, free from the oppression of the Burmans since the British annexation, are now more generally adopting the Burman customs, language, and religion. But the greatest change among the Karens has been wrought by the preaching of the missionaries, by whose agency they have been turned from Nat-worship to Christianity. There are now no fewer than 451 Christian Karen parishes; most of these support their own church, their own Karen pastor, and their own parish school, and many subscribe considerable sums in money and in kind for the furtherance of missionary work among the Karens and other hill races beyond the British border. Christianity continues to spread among the Karens, and their Christian communities are distinctly more industrious, better educated, and more law-abiding than the Burman villages around them.

The monastic schools of Burma form, as has been already stated, an important feature in the social policy of the country. Before the British came to Burma, every town or village had its *Kyaung* or monastery, where the boys of the place were taught to read and write, and were instructed in religion by the *phugys* or monks. These monks do not officiate at pagodas, or discharge the duties of parish priests. Their

functions are to set an example by their pious lives, and to instruct the young. In former times, boys often left the monastic schools without really learning to read and write; and even those who did learn, found it very difficult to keep up knowledge where there were no printed books, and very little literature of any kind. Still the presence of a body of monks, who observed their vows, who cultivated learning, and who were held in high honour, had its effect on the Burmese. The Buddhist monks are everywhere greatly respected, and the abbots and archbishops are held in great veneration, but the religious orders do not exercise, or pretend to, much political influence. The Burmese pay respect (*sheko*) after the ancient manner of their country. According to this custom, the inferior person kneels before the superior with bowed head in the attitude of worship, and no Burman will address a Buddhist monk (*Phungyi*) in a monastery save in this attitude of *sheko* or worship. But to Burmese of the younger generation, who have learnt English, or who have been to Europe or America, the observance of this custom is repugnant. The increasing practice of sitting on chairs marks another change in social usage. Chairs are now used by Burman assessors in the sessions courts, by Burman judges and magistrates in their own courts, by Burman schoolmasters in government schools, by native members of municipal committees, and by the *Sugyis* (aldermen) of the larger towns. All these sit on chairs when transacting business, especially if in the presence of Europeans.

The people of Burma, by reason of their excitability of character, and their disregard of the sanctity of human life, were formerly prone to crimes of violence. Such offences were wont to be judged leniently by the community; and it is said that young Burmans of respectable family would engage in a robbery or a cattle-lifting expedition to prove their manhood. Even now, murders and woundings are occasionally committed without an adequate motive, as the following instances will show. A and B were neighbours in the same village. A was painting his boat; B did not like the smell of the operation, and told A to desist. A went on painting his boat, and when he had finished, in walking towards his house he passed B, who cut him down with a chopper, and killed him. In another case, a wife cooked the daily meal for her husband; he did not like the curry she had made, and in his displeasure cut his wife down, killing her. In neither case did it appear that there had been much previous ill-feeling between the two parties, or that the murdered person had given other offence to the murderer.

Notwithstanding these occasional ebullitions of violence, a Burman crowd is quiet and law-abiding. At the recent Rangoon boat-races, crowds of from 10,000 to 30,000 people were assembled for three days, and during the whole time only one offence was reported to the police as having occurred among the vast assemblage. 'Under ordinary cir-

cumstances,' wrote the Army Commission of 1879, 'there was no quieter or more peaceful quarter of Her Majesty's Indian Empire than the Province of British Burma. At the same time, there is an element of danger in the unsteady and excitable character of the people, among whom the prestige of the Court of Ava is very great, and on whom 'disturbances or troubles on the Mandalay border might react in an inconvenient and mischievous fashion.' The majority of the respectable classes are content with British rule, and the people feel that they have prospered since the annexation. High wages, bountiful returns to the farmer, plentiful food, and freedom from oppression, combine to make the life of an ordinary Burman happy and comfortable.

Women in Burma occupy a much freer and happier position than they do in Indian social life. They go about freely; manage the household, buy the daily supplies in the *bázár*, and in every respect take an active part in domestic affairs. Industry and thrift among women are promoted by the custom according to which most girls, even in well-to-do families, work looms, or keep stalls in a *bázár*, till they get married. The girls usually spend the profits of their undertakings on dress or personal adornment, and they are not required to contribute their earnings to the common family purse. The Burmese wives make successful women of business; they conduct not merely retail trades, but also large wholesale concerns, on behalf of their husbands, with a liberal, but at the same time a shrewd, sagacity. The husband sometimes lives in idleness on the fruits of his wife's labour. The ratio of female to male prisoners in Burma jails is less than half even the small proportion of women in Indian prisons.

The articles imported into Burma are luxuries rather than necessities. During the five years ending 1881, the average surplus of imported over exported treasure has been £1,340,000 a year. The greater part of this silver and gold is converted into ornaments by both Burmans and Karens. It would seem, therefore, that every household of six persons in British Burma must have spent on the average about £12 a year on imported articles and jewellery. These figures indicate a high standard of comfort among Burman families. The average income of a Burman household is much larger than that of a family in Continental India. Wealth is widely distributed. The majority of the people are comfortably off, but there are few rich people. Burmans, as a rule, do not save money. They are open-handed and lavish in their expenditure, giving liberally in charity, and to their monasteries or other pious institutions. They spend freely on dress, on jewels, and on entertainments. The *puays*, or theatrical displays, which are given at the harvest-home, and on other auspicious occasions in every Burman village, cost a good deal of money, and are much enjoyed by the pleasure-loving people.

Outside the seaport towns, there are few Burmans who could raise

£500 at a fortnight's notice; even in Rangoon or Maulmain, there are hardly a score of Burmans who could raise, or whom the banks would trust with, £5000. On the other hand, only a small proportion of the people are in debt. Landholders get into debt sometimes when disease carries off their plough-cattle; and gambling lands many Burmans into difficulties. In a small tract, where special inquiries were made by a settlement officer, it was found that barely 20 per cent. of the cultivators are in debt at all. It is not yet known how far this freedom from debt is characteristic of cultivators throughout the whole Province. Suits for debt are few in comparison with the population. Money-lenders of the ordinary Indian type are almost unknown in Burman villages. In Rangoon and other large towns, a certain number of money-lenders from the Madras coast,—*chettis* as they are locally called,—have established themselves. At one time it was feared that they would get possession of the cultivator's lands, but there is no ground for this anxiety. Out of 6833 cultivators in the neighbourhood of Rangoon town, only 58 mortgaged any part of their holdings in a year; and in only nine of these cases did the lands pass into the hands of a native of India. The rate of interest is high, and varies according to the security given.

In all political, social, or special questions which may arise in Burma, it should be remembered that there are no hereditary chiefs, nobles, or great landholders. Even under native rule, the members of the royal family and the officials constituted the only aristocratic class. In British Burma the officials, the elders in the larger villages or towns, and a few merchants and professional men, are the only persons socially above the level of the prosperous cultivators.

The people are, as a rule, comfortably housed. Outside the large seaport towns there are few masonry dwellings. Wood is plentiful, and most houses are built of timber or bamboos on piles. Their height above the ground varies with the average depth of the inundations; but almost every house is thus raised, and the sleeping-room is usually in the upper storey. In poorer parts of the country, houses are built mainly of bamboos and thatch. In the richer tracts of the delta, and along the great rivers, they are constructed of solid posts and well-seasoned beams, with plank floors, and adorned with wood carvings or quaint pictures. In every such house there is at least one long-armed lounging chair, in which the master of the house takes his ease after the day's work. The houses of the Karens, who are less ready to spend money than Burmans, are usually meaner. In the recesses of the forest, where some of the Karens shift their dwelling-place every two or three years, a Karen settlement of ten or twenty families live together under a common roof; each family having one or more rooms opening on the common passage which runs between the two rows of rooms. These settlements,

or *tehs*, are usually on posts eight or ten feet above the ground, to secure their inmates from wild beasts and noxious vapours.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the main employment of the people, and it may be assumed that the production and distribution of rice occupies three-fifths of the whole population. Cotton, sesamum, and tobacco are also grown throughout the Province; gardens and orchards are found near every village; but rice covered about six-sevenths of the total area—3,638,845 acres—under cultivation in 1881–82. The enormous foreign demand, and the large profits recently obtained, have greatly increased the cultivation of this cereal. The Burmese are content with a single crop a year, corresponding with the *aman ropa* of Bengal. It is sown in June, transplanted in September, and reaped about December or January. Their soil is lavish in its yield, requires little labour, and no artificial stimulus beyond the ash of the past year's stubble, which is burned down and worked into the land. Year after year, without a rest, the heavy rains and this primitive manure suffice to ensure an abundant harvest. The Irawadi valley and its delta furnish about three-fifths of the whole rice produce of the Province. This tract is annually inundated, and an inch more or less of water frequently determines whether the receding flood will leave a rich harvest-laden plain or a waste of ruined crops. Henzada and Bassein Districts have been partially secured by an extensive series of embankments which fringe the right bank of the Irawadi, and the left bank of the Nga-wún river, for nearly 200 miles. But the system of regulation is by no means complete, and the problems which beset the delta of a mighty river have yet to be grappled with.

Much attention has of late been given to the improvement of the implements of husbandry in British Burma; in particular to ploughs, reaping instruments, carts, and sugar mills. The trials of improved reaping machines and ploughs have so far, however, proved disappointing. There is much room for alteration in the carts used by the people, which are very unwieldy, demanding a maximum of draught-power, and possessing a small carrying capacity. The large cart traffic, especially during the season from January to May, renders it important that an improvement in the construction of these vehicles should take place.

Sugar-cane pressing is not carried on extensively in Burma. Hitherto wheat can scarcely be said to have been cultivated, the demand in British Burma being supplied from Upper Burma and India. The Burmese standard measure of one basket (equal to about a bushel) contains, on an average, 60 lbs. The highest price fetched by rice is 3s. per basket; 2s. per basket is considered a very remunerative price by the cultivator. As the wheat imported from Upper Burma is said to yield more flour than the Indian wheat, an endeavour is being made to induce cultivators to grow wheat, which is worth at present (1883) about

5s. per basket in the Rangoon market. The advantages from the successful cultivation of wheat in British Burma would be three-fold. First, large tracts of land, unsuitable for rice cultivation, would be brought under the plough; second, the people would have a dry-weather harvest to fall back upon in case of the partial failure of their rice; third, the agricultural development of the Province would not depend on a single crop, and the land revenue would benefit in the most legitimate way. To encourage wheat cultivation, suitable ploughs and seed of the best descriptions of Indian wheat are being supplied free, and very favourable terms have been allowed to all cultivators who undertake the experiment.

The climate and the soil of Burma are well adapted for the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco, which thrives alike in the alluvial plains of the Kuladan and Irawadi deltas and in the hill regions of the Province. The leaf of the Kuladan and the Kyaukkyi regions enjoys a high reputation. The whole population, men, women, and children, may be said to be inveterate smokers. The women have a natural aptitude for the rolling of cigars, which is one of the chief domestic industries of the Province. The area under tobacco is 13,663 acres, or 0.38 per cent. of the total cultivation. The tobacco grown in Burma is, nevertheless, insufficient for the wants of the people. Estimating a yield of 750 lbs. of tobacco per acre, the total out-turn of the Province is over 10,000,000 lbs. of cured tobacco leaf. In 1881-82, tobacco leaf to the amount of 15,763,186 lbs. was imported from India, chiefly from Madras. Cigars to the extent of 80,516 lbs. were in the same year exported from Burma. The net consumption per Burman in the form of cigars is 7 lbs. The importance, therefore, of tobacco as an article of domestic consumption in Burma is evident; and, irrespective of a foreign demand, there is a large field for private enterprise. Hitherto, the leaf has been cured in the rudest fashion; but it is believed that with improved cultivation and a better system of curing, the tobacco of Burma will be able to take a place in foreign markets. With this view, arrangements have been made for the more scientific cultivation of the plant, and for curing the leaf on the American method, by the establishment of a tobacco farm and factory under Government auspices, to merge ultimately into a private enterprise.

Sugar is both a necessity and a luxury to Burmans, and as much in demand as tobacco. Most of the people are tea drinkers in the Chinese fashion, and they take a piece of caked sugar with each mouthful of tea that they drink. The local consumption of sugar is great, and as the Province does not at present produce anything like a sufficient quantity, large importations are made. The area under sugarcane in Burma in 1881-82 was only 6251 acres. Like tobacco, it thrives more or less in all parts of the Province, but particularly in

Shwe-gyín and the coast Districts. The total production of crude brown sugar in the Province in 1881-82 was about 2779 tons, of which 434 tons were exported. The total imports by sea and land for the same year amounted to nearly 11,617 tons, giving a total yearly consumption of nearly 14,000 tons, or about 8½ lbs. per head of the population. The use of sugar by the Burmans in their tea, which the people of India do not drink as an article of diet, shows that there is a large local demand waiting to be satisfied, and that this demand would increase with extended cultivation. At present the cultivation of the cane is carried on in the rudest and most primitive fashion; the land in many cases is not even ploughed, artificial irrigation is not thought of, and manure is rarely applied. The cane is planted out from August to October, and ripens in twelve months.

Jute of several kinds grows wild in Burma, but is rarely cultivated. It is found in great profusion on the sites of deserted or dilapidated villages, and on the edges of swamps, and the fibre obtained from even the wild plant is soft, glossy, and strong. The importance of jute to Burma will be obvious when it is seen that the value of bagging imported into the Province in 1881-82 was £325,351. As the raw material of these bags is a plant indigenous to the Province, encouragement has been given to the people to cultivate it, and supplies of the best seeds have been largely distributed.

Cotton is not a crop which the Burmans care to cultivate. Its cultivation demands much labour, and the climate of the greater part of the Province appears to be unsuited for it. In 1881-82, the total area under cotton was 10,689 acres. The average yield of cleaned cotton per acre for the whole Province was, of field grown, 160 lbs.; of hill grown (*taungya*), 40 lbs.

In a Province like Burma, where the peasants are averse to undertaking any cultivation except that which, with the least outlay of labour and money, yields the highest return, and where the people are, as a rule, fond of ease, what is likely to be really useful to them, and to convince them that much more can be made out of their lands even on their own methods, is a series of experimental farms conducted under the eyes of the peasantry. With this view several have been started in various parts of the Province, in which the principal cereals and other important crops are being cultivated according to the Burmese methods, but with care and industry. It is hoped that the people will, when they perceive the harvests yielding a good return in money, gradually take to improved methods, and interest themselves in the raising of new kinds of produce. The stimulus of an unfailing market for raw produce has borne very remarkable fruit. When the people saw steam rice mills springing up at the great ports, where they could dispose of their unhusked rice at good prices, they found it to their advantage to

extend the cultivation as fast as they could get land, and cattle to work it. In 1867-68, the area under rice was only 1,682,110 acres; there were then 7 rice mills in the whole Province. In 1881-82, the number of mills had risen to 49, and the area under rice cultivation to 3,181,229 acres, or by 89 per cent. in 14 years. The total cultivated area assessed to revenue in 1881-82 was 3,498,688 acres, and the total revenue assessed was £656,162.

Taungya or *jum* cultivation prevails chiefly on the Northern Arakan Hills. This system consists in clearing a patch of forest land, setting fire to the fallen jungle, and then sowing in the ashes a miscellaneous crop of cotton, rice, and pumpkins or other vegetables, all of which ripen in about five months. The assessment on *jum* cultivation is generally made by means of a poll-tax on the husbandman, or on his house, irrespective of the amount of his clearing. The area thus cultivated in 1881-82 was estimated at 47,322 acres, as compared with 109,288 acres in 1875; but the returns can hardly be relied on, owing to the nomadic habit of the cultivators. As population increases, a tendency from extensive to intensive husbandry discloses itself, and *jum* cultivation is being pushed back more and more into the hills and sparsely-populated tracts, before the advance of plough and tillage.

Land Tenures. — The system of land tenure in Burma is simple. Government is the sole proprietor of the soil, and deals directly with the cultivator, from whom it receives a rent varying from 1s. to 10s. an acre. The average assessment is about 3s. 3d. There are no *samindars* or large landed proprietors, and no Government or wards' estates. A new-comer is allowed total exemption from all rent and taxes for a certain period, to enable him to clear his grant. Government then levies a rent 20 per cent. lower than in other Provinces of India; and requires only 2 *annās* (3d.) an acre for land which may be left fallow. Besides this, a generous allowance is made to the settler for failure in crops or cattle, and he can at any time avail himself of five or ten years' settlement on exceedingly liberal terms. About one-fifth of the area tilled is held under such leases; the other four-fifths of the holdings being annually re-measured and assessed by revenue officials, styled *thúgyís*, who are paid by a commission on their collections. The holdings average about 8 acres in extent.

The basis of the land revenue settlement has been:—20 per cent. of the gross produce, after many deductions, payable to Government in money at the rates of the price of grain in the circle within which the land is situated. Practically a lower percentage is taken. In the Districts of Rangoon, Bassein, and Henzada, and in the whole of the Tenasserim Division, each male engaged in *taungya* cultivation pays a tax of two shillings per annum; while in the Districts of Toung-gu and Prome, and generally in the Arakan Division, each family is assessed at

this rate. Among the hill tribes of Northern Arakan, each house pays four shillings per annum, which includes also capitation tax.

Survey, demarcation, and settlement are in the hands of a special department. The area dealt with by this department since its operations commenced in the Province, up to 1881-82, amounted to 5382 square miles, equal to 3,444,480 acres surveyed at a cost of £119,178, or 8½d. per acre. Of this total surveyed area, 3008 square miles, or 1,925,808 acres, have been brought under settlement at a total cost of £23,854, or 3d. per acre. Total cost of survey and settlement, 11½d. per acre. The total revenue brought under settlement up to the end of 1881-82 was £162,173, showing a nett increase of nearly £15,000, or 15 per cent., in the land revenue. The tracts under settlement operations have been, for the present, the Districts of Hanthawadi, Bassein, and Tharrawadi. The total number of tenant occupiers in the portions settled is 4031, holding 51,456 acres, at an average rent of 8s. per acre.

Wages and Prices.—The local supply of labour is inadequate to the demands upon it, and considerable additions are made annually to the population during the harvest and rice shipping season by immigration from Upper Burma and from India. Few of the immigrants, however, bring their wives and children with them, and few settle permanently. To Pegu and Tenasserim, immigrants come by sea from the Madras coast, and from Calcutta in steamers. They are brought over by native captains of labour, who pay the fare of the coolies, receive them, and provide them with work. Into Arakan, immigrants come by land, chiefly from Chittagong. The Census of 1881 showed that in British Burma the number of persons of Indian birth was about 185,000, in addition to 316,000 persons born in the kingdom of Ava. Shans from the Burmese and Chinese Shan States, and other labourers from Upper Burma, come down by whole villages at a time during the harvest season, and return at its close. Some who settle as cultivators manage to get the women of their families brought after them, notwithstanding the stringent rules against emigration in the kingdom of Ava. This stream of yearly immigration into the Province is steadily increasing, and is now more than double what it was five years ago. The high rate of wages is still maintained. All the immigrants find employment, and the demand for outside labour is as great as ever.

Unskilled labour is worth from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a day, and shipping coolies during the season earn up to 3s. It has been calculated that it takes as much money to construct 1 mile of road, or 100 cubic feet of masonry, in British Burma as it does to make 2 miles, or 800 cubic feet, in India. The large exportation of the food staple, and increased demands, have caused prices to rise very rapidly of late years. Previous to the annexation of the Province, the usual cost of paddy was Rs. 20 or

Rs. 25 (£2 or £2, 10s.) per 100 bushels; in 1878 (owing to the demand for grain during the famine in Southern India), it rose to £13 per 100 bushels, the highest price realized; after that year it fell steadily, and in 1882 the price was £5, 2s. per 100 bushels. The average prices of produce ruling in the Province at the end of 1881-82, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were—for rice, 6s.; for uncleaned cotton, 20s.; for sugar, 17s.; for tobacco, 30s. 6d.; for oil-seeds, 10s. 9½d. Uncleaned cotton at the time of the annexation was obtainable at £1 per 100 *viss* (365 lbs.); it now fetches more than four times that sum. The average price of a bullock has increased from Rs. 10 (£1) to Rs. 60 (£6). Bamboos which used to be sold at Rs. 2½ (5s.) per 1000, now fetch about £2, or Rs. 20.

Means of Communication.—Next to labour, the most urgent want of the country is land communication. There are thousands of villages which are shut off from trade for at least eight months of the year by reason of the lack of roads. The needs of the Delta and the river tracts are in some measure supplied by the steamers and boats which ply on the rivers and tidal creeks, while the railways supply cheap means of transit to the plains which they traverse. But for want of a network of roads connecting the remoter towns and villages with the main lines of communication, the extension of cultivation and the prosperity of the country are retarded. During only four months of the year can the surplus produce of the country immediately adjoining the river tracts or plains be conveyed to the river or railway in carts; during the remainder of the year even this portion is quite shut off from the means of communication. No fewer than 8 of the 18 Districts of the Province are destitute of roads; they do not possess a single mile of metalled or bridged road outside the headquarter town. Road-making in Burma is slow work, owing to the want of labour and metal. No road-metal is available in many Districts except broken brick; and in a country with a heavy rainfall, a road of this material requires constant care and repairs after it is made, particularly if the traffic is at all heavy. There are only 1310 miles of made road in the whole Province, portions of which are impassable during the rains. There is abundance of waterway throughout the Irawadi delta all the year round. The Sittaung valley, however, has no such advantages.

There are now (1884) two lines of railway in the Province. One, following the valley of the Irawadi, called the 'Irawadi Valley State Railway,' 163 miles in length, connects the capital Rangoon with Prome. This line was opened in 1877, and the results have been most satisfactory. The other line, called the 'Rangoon and Sittaung Valley State Railway,' also 163 miles in length, connects the capital with the military station of Toung-gu. This line, now approaching completion,

will, it is expected, attract the whole of the trade with Karengñ and the Shan States, and not only open up fertile districts as yet without means of communication, but also secure the frontier of Toung-gu, which in its present isolation is exposed to some peril. A navigable canal, about 40 miles in length, with locks, between the Sittaung and Irawadi rivers, has been, after some years in construction, now completed; it is intended to avoid the dangers of the bore in the Sittaung estuary. It carried 80,000 tons of boat traffic in 1881, besides timber rafts, and its completion has caused great extensions of cultivation in the tract through which it passes—a tract previously water-logged and without means of communication. A similar canal has now been undertaken from Rangoon, through the rich township of Twantay, into Thongwa (Thun-khwa) District, between the Rangoon and Irawadi rivers. Proposals for the clearing of several old channels, the real highways of Burmese traffic, in order to make them again navigable, are also receiving attention. During 1881, two extra services of coasting steamers were, by the help of Government subsidies, established for the purpose of affording weekly communication, inwards and outwards, with the Districts of Kyauk-hpyu, Tavoy, and Mergui, and fortnightly with Sandoway.

Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—For centuries the seaboard of Burma has been visited by ships from many countries. Bassein, under its classic name of Kusimanagara, corrupted by the Talaings into Kutheim or Kusein, and by the Europeans who visited it into Cosmin, was a flourishing port in the 12th century. At a later period we find Arabs and other Asiatic races in constant communication with Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim. Towards the beginning of the second half of the 14th century, Muhammadan merchants carried on a brisk trade between Pegu and the countries east and west. The Arabs brought to Burma goods of European manufacture as well as the produce of their own country; and large sea-going boats from Mrohaung, the capital of the Arakan kingdom, visited the ports of Bengal.

The principal exports from Bassein and Pegu were gold, silver, rubies, sapphires (all jewels were excessively cheap, or as Frederick has it, sold 'at most vile and base prices'), long-pepper, lead, tin, lac, rice, and some sugar. The imports from Arabia and the Persian Gulf to Syriam (an ancient emporium of Burma, 3 miles from the mouth of the Pegu river), were woollen cloths, scarlet velvets, and opium; and from Madras and Bengal, 'painted cloth of Masulipatam and white cloth of Bengala, which is spent there (Pegu) in great quantity.' The trade of Malacca and places to the eastward was with Martaban, then a flourishing port of Tenasserim; the imports being porcelain from China, camphor from Borneo, and pepper from Achin. From Arakan, rice was the principal export, the imports being muslins, woollens, cutlery, piece-

goods, and glass and crockery ware. Tenasserim exported tin largely. The continual wars between the Burmese and Siamese ruined the trade of the south; and on the conquest of Arakan by the former in 1784, commerce was so hampered by vexatious restrictions and prohibitions that it almost ceased.

After the cession of the country to the British, Akyab rapidly rose in importance, and the inland trade with Upper Burma across the mountains increased to such an extent that it competed seriously with the sea-borne trade at Bassein and Rangoon. Owing to the facilities for inland communication by the creeks, Akyab is and will remain the real port of Arakan. The trade of Tenasserim also, when the British came into possession, was at a very low ebb. The country, however, had extensive teak forests, which led to the foundation of the town of Maulmain, where ship-building could be extensively carried on. The favourable situation of this town at the mouth of the Salween, where it is joined by two other tributaries, all three rivers tapping countries exceedingly rich in teak, has enormously developed the timber trade. In 1836-37, the exports from Maulmain consisted almost entirely of teak timber, which realized a revenue of £2080; five years later it was £5418. In 1851-52 it had risen to £7163. In 1860-61, the total value of the imports at Maulmain was £530,234, and of the exports £446,371, the total duty realized being £10,048, and the aggregate tonnage of vessels calling at and leaving the port in the same year being 155,113 tons. Ship-building, which during the period of its greatest activity, from 1837 to 1858, was principally for European owners, has since almost entirely ceased, in consequence of the rise in price of materials and labour. In 1840, the price of teak was Rs. 25 (£2, 10s.) a ton, in 1881-82 it was Rs. 63 (£6, 6s.); unskilled labour rose from 14s. to 30s. a month, and skilled labour from 30s. to £5.

The commercial prosperity of British Burma has more than kept pace with its rapidly increasing population. Since 1855, the external trade of the Province has risen from £5,000,000 to £21,000,000 in 1881-82, as the following figures show. Value of sea-borne trade in 1881-82, imports £8,077,000, exports £9,288,000; value of land-frontier trade, imports £2,018,000, exports £1,765,000; total value, imports £10,095,000, exports £11,053,000, aggregating a total of £21,148,000. Rangoon absorbs about 90 per cent. of the whole of the foreign import trade, and about 60 per cent. of the foreign export trade. The trade, especially the rice traffic to Europe, is employing steamers more largely every year. The Indian craft and junks, which used to do much of the trade along the coast, to India on the one side and to the Straits Settlements on the other, are decreasing before the competition of the coasting steamers, of which there are now three or four lines, besides the mail steamers of the British India Company. The

service done for the Province by these steamers is very great. The sea-borne trade at the eight different ports of the Province during 1881-82 was carried on in 918 steamers and 850 sailing vessels, 'entered' and 'cleared,' with a registered tonnage of 1,492,584 tons.

The chief items of the export trade are rice, timber, cutch (a resinous gum used for dyeing and other purposes in Europe and America), hides, petroleum, and precious stones. It is the rice produce and the rice exports that have made and that maintain the prosperity of British Burma. In 1880-81, the Province sent away no fewer than 892,262 tons of rice, of which Upper Burmah took 6924 tons. The declared values of three items of export alone for the same year, were—rice, £5,655,000; teak timber, £1,020,000; and cutch, £468,000. In 1881-82, the value of the rice exported was £5,379,556. The chief imports are piece-goods, silk, cotton, and wool, cotton twist, gunny-bags, betel-nuts, liquors, tobacco, iron, mill machinery, and sugar. Among the imports the value of cotton yarn, cotton goods, silk and woollen goods, and apparel, in 1880-81 reached £3,330,000.

The most important industry in British Burma is carried on by the rice-mills, which free the rice from the husk and prepare it for the European, American, and Chinese markets. It is the enterprise and the skill of the mill-owners that have increased the rice trade of Burma. At the present time, Burmese rice is sent direct from the mills to England, Italy, Austria, Germany, Holland, France, Brazil, the Straits, China, and the Mauritius. It seems to be making its way into new fields. A recent report mentioned that Burmese rice had reached Iceland; and a merchant just returned from Europe reported that in Northern Germany the Burmese grain is coming into use as an article of food among the poorer classes. The rice-mills ensure a ready market and a full price for all the surplus paddy (rice in husk) which any farmer can send by boat or rail to a rice port, and they provide cargoes for the steamers and sailing vessels which flock to Burmese ports. There are now 49 rice-mills at work in Burma, of which 28 are at Rangoon, and seven at each of the other rice ports, namely, Maulmain, Akyab, and Bassein. Twenty of the Rangoon mills can prepare white rice fit for European consumption; the remainder prepare cargo rice, which has again to be passed through cleaning mills in London, Liverpool, Hamburgh, or Bremen. White rice cannot stand the long voyage round the Cape, but it bears the shorter journey through the Suez Canal to Europe well. There are about 20 steam timber saw-mills at Rangoon, Maulmain, Tavoy, and Shwe-gyin. Of the total number of mills in the country, 41 rice-mills and 10 timber saw-mills are owned by European merchants, 3 rice-mills and 4 saw-mills by Chinese, two of each by Burmese, one rice-mill by Pársis, one saw-mill by the King of Ava, and two of each by natives of India.

Next to occupations connected with the preparation of rice for the market, the most important industry is weaving. At Prome, Shwe-daung, Yandún, and other towns in the Irawadi valley, there used to be a large production of silk *patsoes*, *tameins*, and *gaungbaungs* (garment pieces worn by Burmese men and women). But the power-looms of Europe are now sending large supplies of these fabrics woven on Burmese models. These undersell the local fabrics, and the latter are now produced in smaller quantity. The native cloths are 30 per cent. dearer, but stronger and more durable, both in texture and in colour, than the imported fabrics. Almost every Burmese man and woman has one or more of these silk garment pieces to be worn on festivals, or oftener if the owner can afford it. Efforts are being made to popularize improved forms of looms and shuttles brought from England in 1880, and their use is being taught in several Karen schools.

The manufacture of earthenware is carried on in most parts of the Province, and considerable artistic success has been attained in the potteries at Shwe-gyin and Bassein. Drinking vessels, boxes and other articles of lacquer ware are largely made everywhere, and every Burmese monk has two or three large lacquer vessels for collecting daily contributions of food from his disciples. The groundwork of these articles consists of very fine bamboo wickerwork, on which are overlaid coats of lacquer, the chief ingredient in which is the oil or resin from the *thitsi* tree. Little or no real lac is used in the Burmese ware. The Burmese exhibit proficiency in the art of wood-carving; their temples, monasteries, and sometimes their dwelling-houses are ornamented with a profusion of quaint and delicate designs, and skilful master-carvers in wood are much esteemed. Formerly the carvers devoted their labours almost entirely to the ornamentation of religious edifices, but of late years they have shown themselves ready to comply with the demand which has sprung up among Europeans for specimens of their handiwork.

Boat-building, cart-making, mat-weaving, torch-making, the manufacture of paper, umbrella-making, ivory-carving, and stone-cutting are also branches of industry among the Burmese. Ironsmiths are found in almost every village, but their skill is limited. In iron the manufacture of *tees* for pagodas, and in brass the casting of bells and of images of Gautama, may be mentioned. Quaint, beautiful gold and silver work is everywhere made. *Repoussé* silver bowls are to be found in every monastery and in every respectable Burman's house. Enamelling on silver, or the manufacture of what is known as *viello* work, is also practised in Shwe-gyin and Thayet-myo Districts. As a rule, Burmans of all classes invest their savings in gold and silver ornaments. The refining and preparation of cutch for the home market in Prome and Thayet-myo Districts afford employment to a large number of people.

The manufacture of paper from bamboos is also to be tried, and if successful an important new industry will soon grow up.

The condiment known as *nga-pi* (from *nga*, 'fish,' and *pi*, 'to be pressed'), made from fish, is universally used by Burmans and Talaiings throughout British and Upper Burma. It is of three kinds—*nga-pi-gaung*, or whole fish salted; *taungtha nga-pi*, 'fish paste,' and *seinsa nga-pi*, or 'raw eaten,' because it is eaten uncooked; in Arakan this last is known as *nga-pi nyin*, and in Tavoy and Mergui as *gwe*; by Europeans it is called *balachong*, the name given to it in the Straits of Malacca. Salt is manufactured all round the coast, but the importation of cheap salt from England has seriously affected the manufacture. The western provinces of China, and the Kakhien and Shan States between China and Ava, are to a considerable extent dependent on British Burma for salt, and large quantities are sent to Bhamo. In 1881-82, 489,776 *maunds* of salt were sold at Rangoon for Upper Burma, of which 332,216 *maunds*, valued at £24,921, were exported to that region.

The land frontier trade is conducted mainly by the Irawadi route, and nearly all the traffic is carried by the steamers of the Irawadi flotilla. This Company began business in 1868 by taking over two or three old Government steamers and flats. They now possess 30 steamers and 44 flats, and send two or more steamers with flats to Mandalay twice a week, and a steamer once a fortnight, or oftener if need be, to Bhamo, which place is within 4 days' journey of the south-west frontier of China. Their steamers and flats also ply on the creeks and rivers of the Pegu delta. The Company receives subsidies aggregating in all £12,000 a year. The service they do to the Province is immense, as they carry yearly between British and Independent Burma goods to the value of about $3\frac{1}{4}$ millions sterling, besides about 50,000 passengers—over and above the large traffic they do in purely British waters. Although they have practically a monopoly of the Irawadi traffic, their charges are not excessive; for instance, they carry salt cargoes from Rangoon to Bhamo, a distance of over 750 miles up stream, for Rs. 11 (£1, 2s.) per ton. Three or four steamers belonging to the King of Burma also ply on the river, but get little freight, although the trade to Mandalay is entirely in the hands of Chinese and Musalmán merchants. The only other steamers plying on the rivers in Burma are small craft belonging to Chinese and Burmese merchants, which run from Rangoon rather irregularly to Yandún and Pegu. Negotiations have been completed with a Maulmain firm to run small steamers for a subsidy on the Salwín and Damdami rivers to important trading towns outside Maulmain.

The value of the inland trade of British Burma, by 3 river and 17 land routes, aggregated in 1881-82, £3,783,375; the imports amounting to

